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# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *November*, 1775.

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## ARTICLE I.

*A Philosophical and Political History of the Settlements and Trade of the Europeans in the East and West Indies. Translated from the French by J. Justamond, M. A. 4 vols. 8vo. 1l. 10s. boards. Cadell.*

THE author \* of this work has employed his talents on a subject which affords great scope for the display of philosophical and political reflections; and it must be acknowledged that he discovers a capacity equal to the arduous undertaking. Of all the remarkable events since the earliest period of chronology, the discovery of the East and West Indies has been productive of the most general and extraordinary change in the manners of almost every nation in Europe. From this grand epoch the minds of men began to be stimulated by a variety of luxurious desires, which had never been excited by any of the objects within the sphere of their former gratification. For neither the insatiable lust of conquest, which had successively overthrown the several empires in the ancient world, nor the stronger incentives of appetite and necessity, that in later times impelled the northern barbarians to issue beyond the bounds of their native territories, were the motives which influenced the maritime adventurers to seek for new settlements in the remotest quarters of the globe. The establishment of civil intercourse with foreign climes was now considered as the most valuable object of each hostile expedition; and those armaments were reckoned the most successful in their operations, that returned not so much loaded

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\* The Abbé Raynal.

with the spoils of a vanquished people, as with the glory of having extended the commercial interests of their country.

The work at present under notice is introduced with the following observations on this subject.

‘ No event has been so interesting to mankind in general, and to the inhabitants of Europe in particular, as the discovery of the new world, and the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope. It gave rise to a revolution in the commerce, and in the power of nations; and in the manners, industry, and government of the world in general. At this period new connections were formed by the most distant regions, for the supply of wants they had never before experienced. The productions of climates situated near the equator, were consumed in countries bordering on the pole; the industry of the North was transplanted to the South; and the inhabitants of the West were clothed with the manufactures of the East: a general intercourse of opinions, laws and customs, diseases and remedies, virtues and vices, was established throughout the world.’

The author next proceeds to take a cursory view of the most celebrated commercial states which have existed in the world; namely, the Phœnicians, Tyre or Sidon, Carthage, and Greece. He observes that the Phœnicians, who were situated on a barren coast, and confined on the interior side by the mountains of Libanus, were happy in enjoying so few natural advantages; the want of which awakened that spirit of invention and industry, which is the parent of arts and opulence. The early subversion of Tyre affords little ground for any remarks relative to its commercial situation; but concerning its offspring Carthage, a republic which gloried in industry, and owed their power to their skill in useful arts, the historian is of opinion that its destruction was a misfortune to the world in general. In respect to Greece, he thinks it is evident, from some works of Xenophon, that the people of that country were better acquainted with the principles of trade than most modern nations are at present; and he accounts for this observation in the following manner.

‘ If we consider that Europe has the advantage of all the knowledge of the Greeks, that her commerce is infinitely more extensive, that since the improvements in navigation, our ideas are directed to greater and more various objects; it is astonishing that we should not have the most palpable superiority over them. But it must be observed, that when these people arrived at the knowledge of the arts and of trade, they were just produced as it were from the hands of nature, and had all the powers necessary to improve the talents she had given them: whereas the European nations had the misfortune to be restrained by laws, by government, and by an exclusive and imperious religion.

ligion. In Greece the arts of trade met with men, in Europe with slaves. Whenever the absurdities of our institutions have been pointed out, we have taken pains to correct them, without ever daring totally to overthrow the edifice. We have remedied some abuses, by introducing others; and, in our efforts to support, reform, and palliate, we have adopted more contradictions and absurdities in our manners, than are to be found among the most barbarous people. For this reason, if the arts should ever gain admission among the Tartars, and Iroquois, they will make an infinitely more rapid progress among them, than they can ever do in Russia and Poland.

Among the nations which flourished at later periods, the author remarks that the Arabs laid the foundations of the most extensive commerce since the times of Athens and Carthage; a distinction which he ascribes rather to the extent of their power, and the nature of the country they possessed, than to their pre-eminence in science, or the knowledge of civil polity. After developing the gradual progress of commerce from its revival by the Arabs, to its being diffused over several parts of Europe, the author arrives at that period which is properly the commencement of the history, when the Portuguese first discovered the East Indies, towards the end of the fifteenth century. The recital of this great event is succeeded by a geographical description of Asia, with the natural history of Indostan, and an account of its religion, government, and customs; to which is subjoined a narrative of the manner in which trade was conducted in India previous to this period. The author then relates the success of the Portuguese arms on the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulph, the particulars of their settlement at Ceylon, their conquest of Malacca, and likewise their settlement in those islands. He afterwards treats of their arrival at China, and the beginning of their trade in Japan, delivering at the same time an account of the state of these countries.

The author justly ascribes the great success of the Portuguese in their Indian expeditions, to that martial spirit of chivalry lately introduced amongst them, and which was cherished by their sovereigns with peculiar attention. They were at this time masters of the coasts of Guinea, Arabia, Persia, and the two peninsulas of India. The Moluccas, Ceylon, and the islands of Sunda, were also subject to their power; and their settlement at Macao insured to them the commerce of China and Japan. Throughout this immense tract, their power was totally uncontrouled, either by sea or land; and while they exercised an absolute dominion over the Asiatic nations, they regulated the price of the oriental products, in the markets of Europe, according to their pleasure and discretion.



As a commercial nation, the glory of the Portuguese, at this period, had never been equalled by the most celebrated states of ancient times. But their prosperity proved of short duration; and that noble spirit of heroism and gallantry, by which their victories had been obtained, was at length extinguished by the inundation of those public vices, and general corruption of manners, which are found to have been in all ages the bane of every people who had risen to extraordinary greatness. The excesses which preceded, and were the cause of the declension of their power, are thus related by the historian.

‘ These successes, properly improved, might have formed so considerable a power, that could not be shaken: but the vices and folly of some of their chiefs, the abuse of riches and of power, the wantonness of victory, the distance of their own country, had changed the character of the Portuguese. The religious zeal, which had added so much force and activity to their courage, now produced in them nothing but ferocity. They made no scruple of pillaging, cheating, and enslaving idolaters. They supposed that the pope, in bestowing the kingdoms of Asia upon the Portuguese monarchs, had not withheld the property of individuals from their subjects. Being become absolute masters of the eastern seas, they extorted a tribute from the ships of every country; they ravaged the coasts, insulted the princes, and became in a short time the terror and scourge of all nations.

‘ The king of Sidor was carried off from his own palace, and murdered with his children, whom he had entrusted to the care of the Portuguese.

‘ At Ceylon, the people were not suffered to cultivate the earth, except for their new masters, who treated them with the greatest barbarity.

‘ At Goa they had established the inquisition, and whoever was rich became a prey to the ministers of that infamous tribunal.

‘ Faria, who was sent out against the pirates from Malacca, China, and other parts, made a descent on the island of Calampui, and plundered the sepulchres of the emperors of China.

‘ Souza caused all the pagodas on the Malabar coast to be destroyed, and his people inhumanly massacred the wretched Indians, who went to weep over the ruins of their temples.

‘ Correa terminated an obstinate war with the king of Pegu, and both parties were to swear on the books of their several religions to observe the treaty. Correa swore on a collection of songs, and thought by this vile stratagem to elude his engagement.

‘ Nuno da Cunha, would make himself master of the island of Damanag on the coast of Cambaya; the inhabitants offered

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to surrender it to him, if he would suffer them to carry off their treasures. This request was refused, and Nuno put them all to the sword.'—

—'The chiefs, and principal officers, admitted to their table a multitude of those singing and dancing women, with which India abounds. Effeminacy introduced itself into their houses and armies. The officers marched to meet the enemy in palankeens. That brilliant courage, which had subdued so many nations, existed no longer among them. The Portuguese were with difficulty brought to fight, except where there was a prospect of plunder. In a short time the king of Portugal used to receive the produce of the tribute, which was paid him by more than one hundred and fifty eastern princes. This money was lost in its way from them to him. Such corruption prevailed in the finances, that the tributes of sovereigns, the revenues of provinces, which ought to have been immense, the taxes they levied in gold, silver, and spices, on the inhabitants of the continent and islands, were not sufficient to keep up a few citadels, and to fit out the shipping that was necessary for the protection of trade.'

Of all the extensive settlements formerly occupied by the Portuguese in India, they possess none at present but Macao, Diu, and Goa; and these are represented as inconsiderable in point of commercial intercourse.

The second book treats of the settlements, wars, policy and trade of the Dutch in the East Indies. This part of the work is introduced with an account of the ancient revolutions in Holland, and the rise of that republic. The events next mentioned are, the first voyages of the Hollanders to India, establishment of the India Company, wars of the Hollanders and Portuguese, the commencement of the Dutch settlement at Formosa, and the trade of the Hollanders to Japan. The progress of the Dutch affairs in India is regularly traced through the several incidents, in the order in which they happened; and these, which it may be sufficient to enumerate, are as follows: the Moluccas submit to the Dutch; the latter form a settlement at Timor; make themselves masters of Celebes; open a communication with Borneo; settlements of the Dutch at Sumatra; their trade at Siam; situation at Malacca; settlement at Ceylon; their trade on the coast of Coromandel; and on that of Malabar; with an account of the Dutch settlement at the Cape of Good Hope, and their dominions in the island of Java. The author afterwards relates the manner of conducting the affairs of the Dutch Company in India and in Europe; specifying likewise the causes of its prosperity, and the reasons of its decline. Among the latter, the principal consideration is the mismanagement of the servants of the

company, whose conduct has been regulated only by a view to their own emolument.

The author next points out the measures that remain to be taken for the re-establishment of the Dutch Company's affairs; concluding with remarks on the former good conduct of the Dutch, and their present degeneracy. As the author's animated expostulation with the Hollanders on this subject, shews the favourable opinion which he entertains of our own country, we shall submit it to the perusal of our readers.

' Yet there is no longer any public spirit in Holland: it is a whole, the parts of which have no other relation among themselves than the spot they occupy. Meanness, baseness, and dishonesty characterize now the conquerors of Philip. They make a traffic of their oath, as of their provisions; and they will soon become the refuse of the universe, which they had astonished by their industry and by their virtues.

' Ye unworthy members of the government, under which ye live, shudder at least at the dangers that surround you! Those who have slavish souls are not far removed from slavery. The sacred fire of liberty can only be kept up by chaste hands. Ye are not now in that state of anarchy, when the sovereigns of Europe all equally opposed by the nobles in their respective states, could not carry on their designs either with secrecy, unanimity or rapidity; when the equilibrium of the several powers was merely the effect of their mutual debility. At present, power grown more independent, confirms those advantages to a monarchy which a free state can never enjoy. What have republicans to oppose to a superiority so formidable? Their virtues; but you have lost them. The corruption of your manners, and of your magistrates, encourages every where the detractors of liberty; and, perhaps, your fatal example is the means of imposing a heavier yoke on other nations. What answer would you wish us to make to those men, who, either from the prejudice of education or the want of honesty, are perpetually telling us; this is the government which you extol so much in your writings; these are the happy consequences of that system of liberty you hold so dear. To those vices which you have laid to the charge of despotism, they have added another, which surpasses them all, the inability to stop the progress of evil. What answer can be given to so severe a satire on democracy?

' Industrious Hollanders! ye who were formerly so renowned for your bravery, and are at present so distinguished by your wealth, tremble at the idea of being again reduced to crouch under the rod you have broken, and which still hangs over you. Would you learn how the spirit of commerce may be united and preserved with the spirit of liberty? View from your shores that island, and those people, whom nature presents to you as a model for your imitation. Keep your eyes constantly fixed upon England;

land: if the alliance of that kingdom has been your support, its conduct will now serve you as an instructor, and its example as a guide.'

The third book is devoted to the account of the settlements, trade, and conquests of the English in the East Indies. The author begins with exhibiting a sketch of the ancient state of the English commerce; after which he proceeds to relate the rise, progress, and various fortune of the English trade in India. This part of the work appears to have been written at the time when the affairs of our East India Company were under the consideration of parliament: respecting the author's sentiments of the wisdom and justice of whose proceedings, and the virtue of the nation, we cannot refrain from presenting our readers with the following extract.

'Being now become absolute rulers in an empire where they were but traders, it was very difficult for the English not to make a bad use of their power. At a distance from home, men are no longer restrained by the fear of being ashamed to see their countrymen. In a warm climate where the body loses its vigour, the mind must lose some of its force. In a country where nature and custom lead to indulgence, men are apt to be seduced. In countries where they come for the purpose of growing rich, they easily forget to be upright.

'Perhaps, however in a situation so dangerous, the English would have preserved some appearance of moderation and virtue, had they been checked by the restraint of the laws: but there were none to direct or to bind them. The regulations made by the company for the carrying on of their commerce, did not apply to this new state of things; and the English government considering the conquest of Bengal but as a help towards increasing numerically the revenue of Great Britain, gave up to the company for 9,000,000 livres per annum, the destiny of twelve millions of people.

'Happily for this portion of our fellow-creatures, a revolution of a peaceable nature is at hand. The nation has been struck with such enormous excesses. She has heard the groans of such a number of victims sacrificed to the avarice and passions of some individuals. The parliament is already employed on this great object. Every detail of that administration is under their inspection, every fact will be cleared up, every abuse unveiled, the reasons of them inquired into and removed. What a sight to be presented to Europe! What an example to be left to posterity! The hand of liberty is going to weigh the destiny of a whole people in the scale of justice.

'Yes, august legislators, ye will make good our expectations! Ye will restore humanity to her rights, ye will put a curb on avarice, and break the yoke of tyranny. The authority of law, which is not to be shaken, will every where take place of an administration purely arbitrary. At sight of that au-



thority, the monopolist, that tyrant over industry, will for ever disappear. The fetters which private interest has rivetted on commerce ye will make to give way to general advantage.

‘ You will not confine yourselves to this momentary reformation. You will carry your views into futurity ; you will calculate the influence of climate, the danger of circumstances, the contagion of example ; and, to prevent their effects, you will select persons without connexions, without passions, to visit these distant countries ; issuing from the bosom of your metropolis, they are to pass through these provinces in order to hear complaints, rectify abuses, redress injuries ; in a word, to maintain and reunite the ties of order throughout the country.

‘ By the execution of this salutary plan, you will, without doubt, have done much towards the happiness of these people : but not enough for your own honour. One prejudice you have still to conquer, and that victory is worthy of yourselves. Venture to put your new subjects into a situation to enjoy the sweets of property. Portion out to them the fields on which they were born : they will learn to cultivate them for themselves. Attached to you by these favours, more than ever they were by fear, they will pay with joy the tribute you impose with moderation. They will instruct their children to adore, and admire your government ; and successive generations will transmit down with their inheritance, the sentiments of their happiness mixed with that of their gratitude.

‘ Then shall the friends of humanity applaud your success ; they will incline to hope they may once more see prosperity revive in a country embellished by nature, and no longer ravaged by despotism. It will be pleasing to them to think that the calamities which afflicted those fertile countries are for ever removed from them. They will pardon in you those usurpations, which have been only for the despoiling of tyrants, and they will invite you to new conquests, when they see the influence of your sublime constitution of government extending itself even to the very extremities of Asia, to give birth to liberty, property, and happiness.’

The fourth book contains an account of the voyages, settlements, wars and trade of the French in the East Indies, prefaced, as usual, with a detail of the ancient revolutions of their commerce. In the conclusion of the book, the sagacious author expresses his doubts respecting the permanency of peace between the British and French in the Asiatic territories. Happy would it be for the subjects of both crowns, if all their ministers would adopt the benevolent sentiments of this respectable author, testified in the subsequent paragraph ?

‘ Far be it from us to suggest any idea that would tend to rekindle the flames of discord. Rather let the voice of reason and philosophy be heard by the rulers of the world. May all  
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sovereigns,

sovereigns, after so many ages of error, learn to prefer the virtuous glory of making a few men happy, to the mad ambition of reigning over wasted regions and over people groaning under the weight of oppression. May all men become brethren, and accustom themselves to consider the universe as one family, under the eye of one common father. But these wishes, which are those of every sensible and humane man, will appear as idle dreams to ambitious ministers, who hold the reins of empire. Their busy and restless disposition will still shed torrents of blood.'

The fifth book comprehends an account of the trade of Denmark, Ostend, Sweden, Prussia, Spain, and Russia, to the East Indies; where the author likewise delivers a historical and political detail of the commerce of those several states; which is succeeded by judicious and philosophical reflections on the following subjects: viz. Conjectures concerning the future state of the trade of Europe in China. Whether Europe should continue its trade with India? An Inquiry, whether it is necessary, that the Europeans should have large establishments in India, in order to carry on the trade? Whether Europe ought to lay open the trade to India, or carry it on by exclusive charters? In these various disquisitions the author discovers not only solidity of observation, but soundness of reflection; with a judgment equally remote from arrogance, partiality, or prejudice.—In our next Review, we shall accompany this philosophical writer to the western world, respecting which his information appears to be no less accurate and extensive, or his remarks less pertinent and just, than in his account of the commerce of the East Indies.

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II. *The Probability of reaching the North Pole discussed.* 4to. 2s. 6d.  
Heydinger.

THE honourable Mr. Barrington, so distinguished for his indefatigable attention to the improvement of knowledge, was, it seems, the proposer of the late voyage towards the North Pole, and is the author of the production now before us relative to similar enterprizes. Without impeaching in the smallest degree the conduct of the officers who had the direction of the voyage northward in 1773, and for whose nautical abilities this gentleman professes the greatest respect, he has, in these papers, which were read at a meeting of the Royal Society, recited such intelligence as he has been able to procure with regard to navigators reaching high northern latitudes; because he thinks it probable from these accounts, that,

that, in a favourable season, the North Pole may be more nearly approached than was found to be practicable in the late expedition for that purpose.

Previous to reciting the instances of navigators who have reached high northern latitudes, Mr. Barrington makes the following observation respecting the Greenland fishery, with the view of assigning a reason why the northern parts of Spitzbergen have usually been the limits of the nearest approaches towards the Arctic Pole.

‘ Fifty years ago such apprehensions were entertained of navigating even in the loose, or what is called sailing ice, that the crews commonly continued on shore, from whence they only pursued the whales in boats.

‘ The demand, however, for oil increasing, whilst the number of fish rather decreased, they were obliged to proceed to sea in quest of them, and now by experience and adroitness seldom suffer from the obstructions of ice.

‘ The masters of ships, which are employed in this trade, have no other object but the catching as many whales as possible, which as long as they can procure in more southern latitudes, they certainly will not go in search of at a greater distance from the port to which they are to return: they therefore seldom proceed beyond N. lat. 80, unless driven by a strong southerly wind, or other accident.

‘ Whenever this happens also, it is only by very diligent inquiries that any information can be procured; for the masters, not being commonly men of science, or troubling their heads about the improvement of geographical knowledge, never mention these circumstances on their return, because they conceive that no one is more interested about these matters than they are themselves. Many of the Greenland masters are likewise directed to return after the early fishery is over, provided they have tolerable success; so that they have no opportunity of penetrating to the northward.

‘ To these reasons it may be added, that no ships were perhaps ever sent before last summer with express instructions to reach the Pole, if possible, as most other attempts have been to discover a N. E. or N. W. passage, which were soon defeated by falling in with land.’

The first instance which Mr. Barrington produces of those who have navigated to high northern latitudes, is captain Thomas Robinson, who in 1766 reached  $82\frac{1}{2}$  degrees N. L. The captain remembers that the sea was then open, and had no doubt of being able to penetrate to 83 degrees, but how much further he would not pretend to say.

The next instance is that of captain Cheyne, who, in a paper containing answers to certain queries which had been drawn up by Mr. Dalrymple, F. R. S. in relation to the Polar seas, mentions



tions his having been as far north as the degree of L. 82; but does not specify whether by *observation* or his *reckoning*, though from many other answers to the interrogatories proposed, it is presumed that he speaks of the latitude by *observation*. As captain Cheyne, however, is at present on the coast of Africa, no further information on this head can now be procured from him.

The third evidence produced is Mr. Watt, who in 1751, being then not quite seventeen years of age, went on board the *Campbeltown* of Campbeltown, captain Mac-Callam, at that time employed in the Greenland fishery. During the time the whales are supposed to copulate, the crews of the Greenland vessels commonly amuse themselves on shore. But captain Mac-Callam, who was a scientific man, thought a voyage to the North Pole more interesting, and that the season being fine, he had a chance of penetrating far to the northward, and might return before the latter fishery took place. He is said to have proceeded without the least obstruction to  $83\frac{1}{2}$ ; when the sea was not only open to the northward, but they had not seen a speck of ice for the last three degrees, and the weather, at the same time, was temperate. When they were advancing to these high northern latitudes, the mate complained that the compass was not steady, on which captain Mac-Callam desisted from his attempt, though with reluctance; knowing that if any accident happened, he should be blamed by his owners, who would no doubt be reminded by the mate of the protests he had made against the ship's proceeding further northward. After the return from the voyage, captain Mac-Callam has been heard to say, in the presence of Mr. Watt and others, that, if the mate had not been faint-hearted, the ship possibly might have reached the North Pole. Both captain Mac-Callam and the mate are now dead, and it is doubtful whether the ship's journal can be produced. From the recital of various circumstances, however, the hon. author supports the credit of Mr. Watt's assertion upon such ground as entitles it to no small degree of regard, even considering it as the testimony of a youth not seventeen years of age at the time when the voyage was performed.

The next proof which Mr. Barrington cites, he received from Dr. Campbell, the continuator and reviser of Harris's *Collection of Voyages*.

'In that very valuable compilation, says he, commodore Roggewein's circumnavigation makes a most material addition, some of the most interesting particulars of which were communicated by Dr. Daillie, who was a native of Holland, and lived  
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in Racquet-court, Fleet-street, about the year 1745, where he practised physic.

‘ Dr. Campbell went to thank Daillie for the having furnished him with commodore Roggewein’s voyage, when Daillie said that he had been further both to the southward and to the northward than perhaps any other person who ever existed.

‘ He then explained himself as to the having been in high southern latitudes, by sailing in Roggewein’s fleet, and as to his having been far to the northward, he gave the following account :

‘ Between fifty and fifty years ago it was usual to send a Dutch ship of war to superintend the Greenland fishery, though it is not known whether this continues to be a regulation at present.

‘ Dr. Daillie (then young) was on board the Dutch vessel employed on this service, and during the interval between the two fisheries, the captain determined, like Mr. Mac-Callam, to try whether he could not reach the Pole, and accordingly penetrated (to the best of Dr. Campbell’s recollection) as far as N. lat. 88, when the weather was warm, the sea perfectly free from ice, and rolling like the bay of Biscay. Daillie now pressed the captain to proceed, but he answered that he had already gone too far by having neglected his station, for which he should be blamed in Holland, on which account also he would suffer no journal to be made, but returned as speedily as he could to Spitzbergen.

‘ There are undoubtedly two objections which may be made to this account of Dr. Daillie’s, which are, that it depends not only upon his own memory, but that of Dr. Campbell, as no journal can be produced, for the reason which I have before stated.

‘ The conversation between Dr. Campbell and Daillie arose from the accidental mention of Roggewein’s voyage to the southward ; and can it be supposed that Daillie invented this circumstantial narrative on the spot, without having actually been in a high northern latitude ?

‘ If this be admitted to have been improbable, was he not likely to have remembered with accuracy what he was so much interested about, as to have pressed the Dutch captain to have proceeded to the Pole ?

‘ But it may be said also that we have not this account from Daillie himself, but at second hand from Dr. Campbell, at the distance of thirty years from the conversation.

‘ To this it may be answered, that Dr. Campbell’s memory is most remarkably tenacious, as is well known to all those who have the pleasure of his acquaintance ; and, as he hath written so ably for the promotion of geographical discoveries in all parts of the globe, such an account could not but make a strong im-

impression upon him, especially as he received it just after the first edition of his compilation of voyages.

‘ No one easily forgets what is highly interesting to him ; and, though I do not pretend to have so good a memory as Dr. Campbell, I have scarcely a doubt, but that if I should live thirty years longer, and retain my faculties. I shall recollect with precision every latitude which I have already stated in this paper.

‘ What credit, however, is to be given to all these narratives is entirely submitted to the Society, as I have stated them most fully with every circumstance which may invalidate, as well as support them ; and if I have endeavoured to corroborate them by the observations which I have made, it is only because I believe them.

‘ It should seem upon the whole of the inquiries upon this point, that it is very uncertain when ships may penetrate far to the northward of Spitzbergen, and that it depends not only upon the season, but other accidents, when the Polar seas may be so free from ice as to permit attempts to make discoveries \*.

‘ Possibly, therefore, if a king’s officer was sent from year to year on board one of the Greenland ships, the lucky opportunity might be seized, and the Navy Board might pay for the use of the vessel, if it was taken from the whale fishery, in order to proceed as far as may be towards the North Pole.

Thus far the learned author proceeds in maintaining the probability of reaching the North Pole, in a paper read at a meeting of the Royal Society, May 19, 1774. In another paper read before the same society Dec. 22, 1774, he produces further proof in support of the argument. He had at first resolved not to trouble the Society with any instances of navigators having reached high northern latitudes, which had appeared in print ; but happening to find three such accounts, in books not commonly looked into, he thought it proper to recommend them to notice. To give a particular detail of the additional evidence which the hon. gentleman has collected, would swell this article of our Review to an immoderate length ; we must therefore content ourselves with observing, that in reciting the several instances which are specified in the paper under consideration, and in a postscript on the same subject, the philosophical author displays not only a vigilant attention both to the written and oral information he has received, but likewise examines, in the most satisfactory manner, the credibility of the evidence produced, and advances

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‘ \* Captain Robinson hath informed me, that at the latter end of last April, a Whitby ship was in N. lat. 80, without having been materially obstructed by the ice.’



such judicious and forcible arguments in favour of the practicability of reaching the polar region, as naturally ought to excite the exertion of further attempts for effectuating an enterprize which has so long been an object of speculation both to the philosophical and commercial world. The author has subjoined Thoughts on the Probability, Expediency, and Utility of discovering a Passage by the North Pole, for which we refer our readers to the pamphlet.

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III. *Observations historical, critical, and medical, on the Wines of the Ancients. And the Analogy between them and Modern Wines. With general Observations on the Principles and Qualities of Water, and in particular on those of Bath. By Sir Edward Barry, Bart. 4to. 15s. in boards. Cadell.*

WHEN a writer of learning and judgment engages in researches into remote times, he may be immediately distinguished from the frivolous herd of antiquarians, not only by the perspicuous method of investigation he pursues, but by the utility and importance of the subjects to which his inquiry is directed. The author of the *Observations* now before us is justly entitled to a place among this rank of literary luminaries; those who enlighten by their penetration the obscure and dubious customs of distant ages, and with their genius enliven, while they explore, the darksome retreats of ancient knowledge. Disquisitions of this nature are particularly acceptable when they lead at once to the discovery of facts which excite the attention, and of truths that tend to the happiness and general benefit of mankind. Exclusive of the gratification arising from such inquiries, as objects of laudable curiosity, the ascertainment of ancient dietetic and pharmaceutic prescriptions must be regarded as a matter of great consideration in medical science.

The learned author begins with delivering an account of the general nature and principles of wines, with the view of determining how far the difference of soil, climate, and culture of the vine, preparation of the grapes, and fermentation of their juices, contributed to give various and peculiar qualities to the wines of the ancients. Sir Edward Barry here confines his observations principally to those wines which are made of the fruit of the *vitis*. He observes that the first property necessary in the grapes, for the production of wine, is a sufficient maturity; as in such a state they will excite a more warm and strong fermentation. A proper consistence, in the expressed juices, he remarks, is likewise necessary. When this

is too thin, the succeeding fermentation will be weak, the wine less spirituous, and apt to degenerate into an acetous liquor. On the contrary, when too viscid, the fermentation will be imperfect, and the wine in danger of acquiring a rancid putrescent disposition. A third circumstance requisite is a proper degree of heat, to promote the fermentation. That which is between sixty and seventy degrees in Fahrenheit's thermometer, is found by experience to be the most suitable for this purpose. The duration of the fermentative process likewise varies, according to the climate, strength, and consistence of the expressed juices; being stronger, and ceasing sooner in hot, than in cold climates; a south wind promoting, and a north wind retarding its advancement. The better to illustrate the subject, the baronet has recourse to some chemical observations; but for these we refer our readers to the work, and shall only present them with the following remark.

‘ Many distempers, and particularly concretions in the joints and urinary passages, are, by some eminent writers, injudiciously imputed to this tartar in wines; but this separation of it is a very gradual and slow process, and never can prevail but in a quiescent state, and not possibly while the wine in a quick motion circulates through the body, or in passing through any of the excretory canals: neither are these calculous concretions, which are formed in the joints or urinary passages, of the same kind with this vinous salt; but really of a different and opposite nature, as it evidently appears from experiments, that these calculous concretions are of an alkaline nature, and this vinous tartar of a penetrating acid kind: the crystals of tartar, which are thence formed, are likewise found to be not only a safe, but an useful aperient, and attenuating medicine, in many cases, and much more apt to attenuate and dissolve such beginning concretions, than to form them.’

In the second chapter the author treats of the wines of the ancients. This liquor, he observes, is mentioned by the historians and poets of the earliest ages, and seems to be almost coeval with the first productions from vegetables. After enumerating the principal ancient authors who have written on this subject, he proceeds to explain the general properties and nature of those wines, from observations, facts, and the established principles of fermentation and philosophy: taking notice chiefly of the principal wines mentioned by authors of the best credit; shewing in what manner they were used, and directed by them, to preserve health, to answer their medical intentions in curing diseases, or for the purpose of contributing to social happiness.

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The third chapter is employed on the rules observed by the ancients in making and preserving their genuine wines, and in shewing in what manner they were adulterated. This curious part of the work evinces the author's inquiries to have been very extensive; and he seems to be equally conversant with the practice both of the ancients and moderns in the preparation and management of vinous liquors. He traces distinctly the ancient process, from its beginning, with the vessels made use of, to the time when the wine was deposited in the *Αποθήκη*; and delivers a clear account of the nature and use of the *fumarium*. We shall present our readers with the following passage, relative to the practice of depurating wines by the means of arsenic.

‘ As the intention of the repeated heats in the *fumarium* was gradually to attenuate the viscid texture of the wines, and separate the most gross parts from them, it was after absolutely necessary to defæcate them, and then rack them off into fresh casks, when they had acquired a transparent state. This operation is called forcing, and requires more skill and judgment than any other operation in this second process. Several forms of this kind remain in their writings, which chiefly consist of such ingredients, as, by their viscosity, were capable of involving the lees, and, by their superior gravity, of carrying them down. To this purpose they used plain and burnt salt, bitter almonds, the whites of eggs, and particularly isinglass. But when the wines continued more obstinately foul than usual, they added sand, or marble finely powdered. They were much better acquainted with these arts than our modern wine-coopers, who pretend to conceal, as valuable secrets, some of these common forms; but I do not find that they ever made use of arsenic (or any noxious mineral bodies) in fining down their wines, which certainly, by its very superior gravity, will powerfully attenuate them, and force down any lees, which will in some time entirely subside, perhaps without communicating any noxious quality to the wine; but the too early use of such wines has been often succeeded with fatal consequences. I shall mention a remarkable instance of this kind, which came within my observation. Three gentlemen of distinction had drank pretty freely of white wine, which had been fined down with arsenic. Two of them died in the country in a few days; the other, who came to town, either from the strength of his constitution, or having drank a less quantity, survived: but the effects of it appeared soon in bloody spots over the whole surface of his body; his urine, saliva, and whatever he hawked up, or expectorated, was deeply tinged with blood; these appearances ceased in some time, and he became œdematous. However he recovered; but though his state of health was from that time very imperfect, yet he married two years after, and died in about  
four



four of a dropſy, owing to a total diſſolution and acrimony of his humours, from this mineral poiſon.—Mineral poiſons of this kind are generally ſo violent as immediately to ſhew their effects in the ſtomach and bowels; and, unleſs ſoon diſcharged and corrected by emetics, lenient purgatives, and ſoft plentiful diluents, excite a fatal inflammation and mortification; but how far in a leſs quantity they may more ſlowly affect the blood and nervous ſyſtem, can only be determined by future obſervations.\*

Sir Edward Barry juſtly obſerves, that the accounts which remain of ſome cuſtoms among the ancients, appear now more obſcure, from being then ſo univerſally known, and requiring only a ſhort deſcription: but that there is a peculiar obſcurity in whatever relates to the mechanic part of any operation, and the ſucceſſive times in which each was performed. This obſervation the author conſiders as particularly applicable to the account delivered of the apparatus, and the method practiſed by the ancients in the management of their wines; and he confirms the remark by the following ingenious criticiſm on an Ode of Horace, which we ſubmit to our claſſical readers.

\* A remarkable inſtance of this kind appears in an Ode of Horace \*, where he deſcribes the ceremony, which was obſerved in opening the amphora on that feſtal day, by diſengaging it from its bonds †, and giving liberty to the old wine, which had been ſo long impriſoned in it: he then exactly recounts, but in an inverted order, the principal operations of this laſt proceſs; the removal of the pitched capitulum, made of cork, which covered and cemented it; the previous aromatic vapour of the gums with which it was dried and impregnated before the wine was poured into it; and, laſtly, the æra and name of the conſul impreſſed on it.

\* This Ode has perplexed all the commentators who were unacquainted with the rules obſerved in this laſt proceſs, and have applied the circumſtances which relate only to the amphora, to the wine contained in it, with which they had not the leaſt connexion; and have miſtaken the ſmoaky taſte, which the wine ſlowly contracts from the fumarium, in the ſecond proceſs, for this aromatic volatile vapour, which the amphora quickly imbibed, and, as Horace plainly expreſſes, was inſtituted to receive it. This is evidently the true ſenſe of this elegant ode, which likewise confirms the hiſtorical account given of this proceſs. It would indeed be very abſurd to imagine that Horace

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\* Hic dies, anno redeunte, feſtus  
Corticem aſtriſtum pice dimovebit  
Amphoræ fumum bibere inſtitutæ

Conſule Tullo. Lib. iii. Od. 8.

† Chio ſolvete vincla cado. Tibul. lib. ii. Eleg. 1.

would ascribe to this fine old wine, devoted to that festal day, the smoaky qualities for which their badly prepared, and adulterated wines, were so universally censured and condemned.'

In the subsequent chapter the author investigates with his usual learning the wine cellars of the ancients; from the rules respecting which, and the principles previously laid down, he points out some defects in our modern wine cellars, and in what manner wines may be more effectually preserved in them. It may not prove unacceptable to extract a passage on this subject.

'The situation ought to be low and dry, therefore not on any great declivity, where the under currents from the superior ground must always keep it moist, and infect the air with its putrid exhalations: this communication however may be prevented by intermediate trenches.

'A small anti-cellar, built before all large cellars, would be a considerable defence, and improvement to them; in which a quantity of wine sufficient for a few days, may be kept, and the necessity prevented of more frequently opening the large cellar, and admitting the external air; which must always in some degree alter the temperature of it, and in sudden, or continued great heats, or frosts, may be particularly injurious to the wine.

'It is usual to cover the bottles in the bings with saw-dust; to which I should prefer dry sand, whose density is much greater. I saw a remarkable instance of the benefit arising from an intermediate defence of this kind. A hogshead of claret, which had been lately bottled, was heaped up in a corner of a merchant's common large cellar, with a view of removing it soon to the wine cellar. In the mean time a load of salt, from the want of a more convenient place, was thrown on the bottles, and remained there several months before it was removed. This wine was afterwards found to be much superior to the wine of the same growth, which had been imported and bottled about the same time, and had been immediately placed in the wine cellar. The large quantity of salt formed a compact vault over the bottles, which entirely defended the wine from the influence of the air, though greatly exposed to it; and probably the coldness of the salt contributed to this improvement.

'The ancients certainly more effectually preserved their wine in larger earthen vessels pitched externally than we can in our bottles, as they are more capable, from their superior density and capacity, of resisting the frequent changes in the air; and it is a common observation, that the wine received into bottles which contain two quarts, proves better than that which had been kept in single quarts.

'It appears to me very probable, that our best modern wines, especially those of a delicate texture, and flavour, may be more effectually preserved in earthen vessels, of a larger size than our bottles,

bottles, well glazed externally, and internally. The vessels of this kind, which were formerly used for that purpose, were pitched externally, and lined internally, on account of their being porous, and imperfectly vitrified; but our artists are arrived to such a perfection in this article of manufactory, that their glazed vessels are impervious to the air, and incapable of communicating any bad taste to any liquors contained in them; however pitching them externally would be a greater defence, especially when the glazing is not equally firm.—

‘In such habitations, where no vaults have been made, or can be conveniently constructed, an artificial wine cellar may be easily contrived, which may perhaps more effectually preserve the wine from the variations of the external air, than the common vaults, which are liable to many defects. These may be prevented, by burying these earthen vessels in cavities made in the ground, exactly adapted to the size and form of them, which may be lined with brick, or slate; and so deep, that the upper part of the vessels lodged in them, should be, at least, a foot and a half lower than the surface of the ground: the intermediate space might be filled up with dry sand, over which a leaden cover may be placed, to mark the size of the vessel, and the time when it was buried there.

‘I am sensible that this plan, which I have only sketched out in a superficial view, is very imperfect, and capable of many improvements, in respect to the form, and capacity of the vessels, and the materials of which they are composed. The form and size of the amphora may be a proper one, when a great quantity of wine is deposited in large cellars. A hogshhead of wine may be received into ten vessels, each of which contains somewhat more than two dozen of our quarts; neither would twenty of half their capacity take up any considerable space in a vault, or when buried under ground, in any convenient ground-floor. Whenever any vessel is taken up for use, it may be suspended on the side of the cellar or anti-cellar, and the quantity of wine, which is occasionally wanted, drawn off by a syphon. It was usual to pour a small quantity of oil over the wine, especially when the pitched cork was removed, and it was designed for immediate use; which spreading over its surface, preserved it equally fresh, during the time of drinking it.

‘These vessels would be less expensive, and more durable than bottles, and less liable to frequent frauds, and a considerable waste of the wine, when decanted from bottles, in which a sediment had subsided. But these considerations are of another kind: my intention is only to preserve the wine in a more healthy and firm state.’

The next topic we find treated is the inspissated wines, a subject involved in great perplexity, but of which the learned author delivers a clear and satisfactory explanation. It appears that the wines of the ancients were originally made and



prepared in their genuine simplicity. Those of the Asiatics in particular were remarkable for their superior excellence. In succeeding ages, however, when the encreasing affluence and luxury of the Romans occasioned a greater exportation of wines from Greece to Italy, the inhabitants of the former departed from the usual method of preparing their wines, and by a more easy and shorter process, forced them into more early maturity. From this æra the character of the Grecian wines began to decline; when some among the Greeks, from the motive of retrieving their commerce, invented a particular process, by which they made a more firm kind of wine, and such as not only exceeded all their former production in its generous qualities, but was likewise more durable. The wine thus made, however, was of that peculiar nature, that after its state of maturity, as it advanced in age, it acquired a greater degree of *consistence*; and this, according to our author, seems to be the true origin and nature of those celebrated wines, which in their decay were distinguished by the name of inspissated.

This inspissation was sometimes the consequence of the method used in making wines of an inferior and more weak kind; which was by previously exhaling the aqueous and lighter parts of the *mustum* by coction, and during the fermentation impregnating them with *pitch*, and other aromatic ingredients. By this management the liquor acquired more strength and flavour, but soon degenerated into an inspissated state; justifying the remark of Pliny, who compares them to unguents, and says they rather deserve the name of medicated poisons than wines. There were likewise other kinds of inspissation anciently used, and recommended by physicians; such as the *passum*, *sapa*, and *defrutum*, which were extracts of the recent juices of grapes, differing chiefly in their degree of consistence.

We find from Cato \*, that so early as his time a process was known, of preparing the Falernian wines in such a manner, as to acquire the qualities of the Greek Coan wine. In this composition sea-water was an essential ingredient; which, as our author observes, probably contributed to preserve the wine from degenerating into a foul and vapid state. He further remarks, that as these factitious wines were so much esteemed by persons of the best taste in that refined age, they must have possessed some singular qualities superior to those of the same growth, which had been formerly made by the usual process; and their excellence, in his opinion, seems to con-

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\* De Re Rustica.

sist in their transparency being more permanent. This subject leads our author into some curious critical remarks on another Ode of Horace, respecting the interpretation which the commentators have been much divided in their sentiments; and as Sir Edward Barry's observations strongly authorize a very plausible conjecture, we are persuaded we need make no apology for laying them before our readers.

‘ We find therefore that these wines always retained their original names, as there was no real difference between them and the former wines of the same growth, but that which they acquired from their superior qualities, by which they were easily distinguished; but as these wines were justly censured and marked, by being called inspissated, when in that degenerated state, it is not improbable that they were likewise sometimes distinguished by some characteristic expression, when they were in the best and most perfect state, which either may have been lost, or the meaning of it, though then clear, and universally understood, after so many centuries may appear now very obscure. This perhaps may be illustrated from a remarkable passage in an \* Ode of Horace. L. Corvinus Messala, who was probably the *rex convivii* on that festal day, when Horace entertained his friends, orders some of the languidiora vina to be drawn, and brought in. † It was an usual custom in their convivial entertainments to drink the lighter wines in the beginning, and afterwards the stronger and more generous wines. It cannot therefore be supposed that the wine he called for in that social hour was distinguished by that name, either for its want of strength, or of a grateful flavour; nor can I recollect that among the various epithets with which the historians and poets have distinguished the different qualities of wines, that of *languidium* has been used, except in this single instance. It seems therefore not improbable, that Horace, who had a peculiar happiness of expression, intended to point out the singular quality, or degree of consistence, which these wines attained in their perfect state; and in another Ode, by a similar expression, he seems to mark its progress to that state ‡; but except in these instances, he always distinguishes the different qualities of

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\* O nata mecum Consule Manlio,  
Seu tu querelas, sive geris jocos,  
Seu rixam et insanos amores,  
Seu facilem pia testa, somnum:  
Quocumque lectum nomine Mellicum  
Servas, moveri digna bono die;  
Descende, Corvino jubente  
Promere languidiora Vina.

Ode xxi. lib. 3.

† Capaciores affer huc, puer, Scyphos,  
Et Chia Vina aut Lesbica. Hor. Epod. lib. v. Od. 9.

‡ Nec Læstrigonia Bacchus in Amphora  
Languescit mihi. Lib. iii. Od. 16.

other wines, by their usual epithets, *generosum*, *lene*, *leve*, *dulce*, *molle*, &c. \*. It is likewise remarkable, and seems to add a greater force to the observation, that Corvinus does not for *languida*, but *languidiora vina*, which if taken in a literal sense, expresses a wine of an inferior and less animating kind, and certainly could not deserve that sublime invocation to the amphora, to descend like a deity, and inspire them with its various magic and latent powers; but this expression very properly distinguishes it from the same wine, which when too recent had not acquired its peculiar degree of consistence, or when in a more advanced age became more inspissated, and had lost its softness and flavour. It seems therefore to be particularly adapted to the singular quality of this fine old wine, which, though received into the amphora, when Manlius was consul, still retained all the advantages which it could acquire from age, without being injured by it; for it appears to be sufficiently fluid to be drawn from the amphora, and when diluted with a proper proportion of hot water, and afterwards cooled in snow, must have possessed the limpid generous qualities which Baccius, and others, have ascribed to them.

\* This Ode took its rise from a supper given by Horace to Messala, and a select number of his friends, which seems to have been attended with several agreeable circumstances; to which, perhaps, the amphora, introduced on this occasion, had particularly contributed. This he celebrates, by pointing out the various powers of the wine contained in it, and the different passions it is capable of exciting in the human mind, and inscribes this elegant performance to his illustrious friend, as a perpetual monument of his esteem and affection, which must have given him a superior delight to what he could have received from the most exquisite wine.

† It is necessary here to observe, that it was usual with Horace and others, who had not a large store of different wines, to supply themselves, on any festal entertainment, with an amphora of wine from the public warehouses ‡, or *horrei*, which were plentifully furnished with a variety of them, of different ages, or growths, and were chiefly exported from Greece. These foreign wines were greatly esteemed at Rome in those times; some of them were genuine, and of the best growths. The greatest part of them were adulterated; but prepared with such exquisite art, that they nearly resembled the different age and

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\* Ad mare cum veni, generosum et lene requiro. Lib. i. Ep. 15.

——Sapiens finire memento

Tistitiam, vitæque labores

Molli, Plance, mero.

Lib. i. Od. 7.

† Quo Chium pretio cadum

Mercemur.

Lib. iii. Od. 19.

Parcis deripere horreo

Cessantem bibuli consulis amphoram,

Lib. iii. Od. 28.

qualities



qualities of the former; and even these were then preferred to the best genuine Italian wines. Martial takes particular notice of this prevailing prejudice \*.

‘ Perhaps I have refined too much on this singular passage; but as Horace had certainly on this occasion a just right to assign to this wine any superior qualities, it is not improbable that he might have had in view those which were made by this improved process, and which were then so universally esteemed. Neither is it material whether the historical circumstances in this Ode, relating to the age of the amphora, and wine, or the particular growth and qualities of it be exactly true; and this indeed he particularly points out, by saying it is indifferent from whatever growth it came †.

‘ This seems to have been the true intention of Horace in writing this moral and beautiful Ode, which he has executed with a more than usual poetic spirit: in some parts of it, his flights are rapid and sublime, and from thence they gradually descend with dignity, when he describes the various benefits which flow from the moderate and prudent use of it. He was habitually temperate; his muse was often inspired, but never inebriated with wine; and in another Ode ‡, when he seems transported to a degree of enthusiasm with the powers of wine, and its creation of new ideas, he suddenly checks the pleasing, but dangerous progress of them §.’

The learned author concludes his remarks on this Ode, and on the opinions of the several scholiasts, who appear to have mistaken the poet's meaning, in a strain of modesty that reflects honour on his literary abilities, and which is no less conspicuous than his eminent candour and discernment. He has for many years been considered as a respectable writer in the peculiar province of his profession; and in the present work he has farther greatly distinguished himself, as an antiquarian of extensive erudition, a judicious and ingenious critic, and an elegant and classical scholar.

[ *To be continued in our next.* ]

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- \* ‘ *Accepit ætatem quisquis ab igne cadus  
Nec facili pretio, sed quo contenta Falerni  
Testa sit, aut cellis Setia cara suis.* Lib. x. Ep. 36.
- † ‘ *Quocumque lectum nomine.*
- ‡ ‘ *Quo me Bacche, rapis tui  
Plenum? Quæ in nemora aut quos agor in specus,  
Velox mente novâ?* Lib. iii. Od. 25.
- § ‘ *————Dulce periculum est,  
O Lenæe, sequi Deum  
Cingentem viridi tempora pampino.* Ibid.’

IV. *An Essay on the original Genius and Writings of Homer: with a comparative View of the ancient and present State of the Troade. Illustrated with Engravings. By the late Robert Wood, Esq. Author of the Descriptions of Palmyra and Balbec. 4to. 16s. Payne. (Continued from p. 304.)*

IN the fourth book of the *Odyssey*, Menelaus, in relating his adventures to Telemachus, describes Pharos, as situated a day's sail from Egypt.

Νησος ἐστὶν αὖ, &c.

Od. iv. 354.

‘ High o’er a gulphy sea, the Pharian isle  
Fronts the deep roar of disemboguing Nile:  
Her distance from the shore, the course begun  
At dawn, and ending with the setting sun,  
A galley measures, when the stiffer gales  
Rise on the poop, and fully stretch the sails.’ Pope.

This description of Pharos, says Mr. Pope, has given great trouble to the critics and geographers; it is generally concluded, that the distance of Pharos is about seven stadia from Alexandria. Ammianus Marcellinus, lib. xxii. mentions this very passage thus: ‘*Insula Pharos, ubi Protea cum Phocarum gregibus diversatum Homerus fabulatur inflatus, à civitatis littore mille passibus disparata,*’ or about a mile distant from the shores. How then comes Homer to affirm it to be distant a full day’s sail?

Our author, who twice made this voyage of Menelaus with the *Odyssey* in his hands, informs us, that he was perfectly satisfied, that the poet’s account of its length and danger was agreeable to appearances, when he wrote; and that this passage has been misunderstood, for want of due attention to the changes, which have happened both in the situation and names of places, in that part of the world, since the building of Alexandria\*.

The ground, he says, upon which that city was built, made no part of Egypt in the time of Homer, when the inundation of the Nile marked the natural limits of that country. Its connection with this spot was the work of a more commercial age, as appears by the canal, which conveys the water of the Nile through a barren desert, of thirty miles extent, to Alexandria. Besides this addition to the voyage of Menelaus, the author points out another, founded upon a supposition, that only a small part of the Delta† existed in the time of the

\* This city was built by Alexander the Great, about 328 years before Christ.

† It received this name from its resemblance to the Greek letter Δ, *delta*.

poet; and that continual accessions have been made to that part of the coast by the mud, which the Nile deposits in the sea.

This, we may observe, seems to have been an ancient opinion. Herodotus calls Egypt, *ἐπικτητὸν γῆν*, and *δωρον τὸ ποταμῷ*; Aristotle, *τὸ ποταμῷ ἐργον* \*. In confirmation of this opinion our author observes, that they, who sail from the coast of Delta, get into the discoloured water of the Nile, before they see land; and by heaving the lead, they find the bottom covered with its mud, which subsides and acquires consistence, notwithstanding the agitation of the sea. We find, he says, that since the Holy War, and even since the Venetians established themselves here, places, which were on the sea side, are now at some distance from it within land.

He adds:

‘ This increase of the Delta must have been proportionably more sensible, as we go back to the time when the island was formed. For Lower Egypt being a deep bay, sheltered by two promontories, the mud brought down by the Nile must have been less dissipated by the agitation of the sea, and must of course have occasioned a quicker accession of land to the Delta, than could be produced since it has been more exposed,—They who sail upon the coast discover separate sand-hills, formerly islands, but now included in the Delta. Such a barrier, at the mouth of the bay, must have contributed greatly to the accumulation of that mud, of which the Delta is formed. And if, independently of every other consideration, we attend to the triangular form of the country, and the manner of its increase it is plain, that the progress of that increment must become slower, as its base, or north side, grows wider; and that the same quantity of mud, or slime, which has produced a considerable accession in the last five or six hundred years, must have had a greater effect in the same time, in proportion as the base was narrower.’

The authors of the *Universal History* † observe, ‘ that little alteration has been made in this part of Egypt for above 2000 years past; and that no less than 20,000 years is allowed by Herodotus, for the production of the Delta, or even the greater part of it. Bochart has likewise attempted to prove, that there can be no accession to the coast, from the mud of the Nile, as the violent agitation of the sea prevents it, he says, from lodging and forming itself into solidity. But by the foregoing observations, our author in a great measure obviates

\* Herod. lib. ii. cap. 5. Arist. Meteorolog. 1, 14. See Diod. Sic. lib. i. p. 30.

† Univ. Hist. book i. chap. 3.



both these objections; and, with respect to the latter in particular, he remarks, that the writers, who have urged it, seem to have been led into an error by confounding appearances on the coast of Alexandria, where the sea encroaches on the land, with those of Delta, where there is even now a gradual accession to the continent.

\* Upon the whole, he says, it must appear doubtful, whether any part of Lower Egypt existed in the poet's time; but supposing the south angle of the Delta to have been then formed, its distance from Pharos would make above fifty leagues, which may be called a day's sail, agreeably to the general proportion, which the poet observes between time and distance in his navigation.

It is remarked by our author, that the voyage, which Menelaus took so unwillingly, was from Pharos to the Nile; or, as Homer calls it, the river *Ægyptus*, Αἰγυπτος, and not from Pharos to the land of Egypt. This, we allow, may be true. The word *Nile* was unknown in the times of Homer and Menelaus; and the poet calls that river Αἰγυπτος\*. Yet this makes no difference, as the land of Egypt certainly commenced at the mouth of the Nile.

Our author having thus endeavoured to vindicate the poet, as to the length of the voyage, defends him, with respect to its difficulty and danger, which Menelaus mentions with dread and anxiety, by relating what he himself experienced in approaching the coast of the Delta, in the year 1743.

Our author's next enquiry is into Homer's religion and mythology. A late ingenious writer has attempted to shew the extensive effect of the poet's travelling into Egypt, which he observes was directed by settled rules and a digested policy†. But in opposition to this opinion, Mr. Wood lays before the reader his reasons for thinking, that the high compliments which have been paid to the wisdom of the ancient Egyptians, have not been so well founded as is generally imagined. These reasons he draws from the only sources which can furnish evidence of this matter; namely, first, the monuments, which they have left of their taste and genius; secondly, the accounts which other nations have given of them in these respects.

The substance of what he has observed upon this subject is included in the following abridgement.

We do not find, that antiquity has transmitted to us even their pretensions to excellence in composition. Though

\* Αἰγυπτος διπλοῦς ὀνόμασι. Od. iv. 477. Ab Homero Nilus nominatur Ægyptus. Plin. Nat. Hist. lib. v. cap. 9.

† See Enquiry into the Life and Writings of Homer, § 9.

Egypt produced the papyrus, its use to letters was a Greek discovery \*. Their hieroglyphics have been long admired as the repository of much wisdom and knowledge: though there seems to be great reason to think, that they were the production of an infant state of society, not yet acquainted with alphabetic writing.—

Architecture, sculpture, and painting, seem to owe little to Egypt. If the temple of Theseus stands to this day at Athens, an undoubted proof of the great perfection of Greek arts, as early as the battle of Marathon; in a climate so favourable to buildings as that of Egypt, where there are still considerable remains to be seen of pyramids, of such perishable materials as unburnt bricks, some fragments surely would have been preserved to justify their pretensions.—

Egypt has, no doubt, produced the most stupendous, but, at the same time, the most absurd and unmeaning public works to be seen in any country; viz. pyramids †, obelisks, labyrinths, artificial lakes, which are without art, elegance, or public utility.—Though well situated for commerce they neglected a good harbour, [that of Alexandria] of which the Greeks shewed the value and importance, as soon as they got possession of this country.

When the Greeks first applied themselves to the study of nature, and travelled to Egypt for instruction, we might reasonably expect some favourable accounts of the Egyptian sciences, but all we can collect from them does not raise our ideas of them. If Pythagoras sacrificed a hecatomb, upon finding out the 47th proposition of the first book of Euclid; and Thales an ox, on having discovered how to inscribe a rectangled triangle in a circle, after they had studied mathematics in Egypt, the parent of geometry, what opinion does it give us of the knowledge of their masters in that science! The obscure account we have of their scheme of joining the Nile and the Red Sea looks as if they did not understand how to take a level. It is true, the pyramids correspond exactly with the four cardinal points of the compass; but how small a degree of mathematics does this require! And surely Thales having shewn them, how to measure the heights of those

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\* Pliny, lib. xiii. cap. 10. informs us, upon the authority of Varro, that the use of the papyrus was introduced by Alexander the Great, when he built Alexandria. But, it is probable, he had only the merit of making paper more common; for the invention is thought to have been of much greater antiquity. Guilandinus de Papyro.

† Pliny gives us, in few words, a just idea of these pyramids, when he calls them, *regum pecuniæ otiosa ac stulta ostentatio*, a foolish and useless ostentation of the wealth of the Egyptian kings, lib. xxxvi. cap. 12,

pyramids by their shadow, is a proof of their little progress in trigonometry.

When the Greeks conquered Phœnicia, Chaldæa, and Egypt, their taste, and, of course, their curiosity, was at the highest. Whatever accounts that elegant and learned people may have given of the school, from whence they are supposed to have received the rudiments of all their knowledge, yet there is very little said of the learning or arts of Egypt, except what they carried thither themselves. Homer was studied with more critical attention in Egypt, than in any other country; but it was by Greeks. Nor do we find, that Zenodotus or Aristarchus, who took so much pains in settling the true readings of his works, under the Ptolemies, drew any illustrations of their author from the productions of the country in which they wrote. Those learned editors superintended the greatest and choicest library, that had ever been seen \*, of which Aristotle's valuable collection made a part; yet they have told us nothing of the writers of that country, in which

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\* Aulus Gellius informs us, that this collection consisted of almost 700,000 volumes: "*ingens numerus librorum in Ægypto à Ptolemæis regibus vel conquisitus vel confectus est, ad millia fere voluminum septingenta,*" Noct. Attic. lib. vi. cap. 17. Yet notwithstanding this account we can form no adequate idea of its value and importance, as we cannot ascertain the extent of these *volumina*, or rolls. The word *volumen* is frequently used by the best authors to signify a single treatise, book, or canto: so that Homer's Iliad may be said to consist of twenty-four volumes. Pliny the Younger, having mentioned all the writings of his uncle, adds: "*miraris, quod tot volumina, multaque in his tam scrupulosa, homo occupatus absolverit.*" Plin. lib. iii. ep. 5.

He wrote, he says, twenty books of the Wars in Germany: *Bellorum Germanicæ viginti [libros]*, which Suetonius calls twenty *volumes*; "*Bella omnia, quæ unquam cum Germanis gesta sunt, viginti voluminibus comprehendit.*" Suet. in Vita Plinii. His three books upon Study were divided into six volumes: "*Studiofi tres [libri] in sex volumina, propter amplitudinem, divisi.*" Plin. lib. iii. ep. 5. Here the word *volume* signifies a tome, or a part of a book. Ovid speaking of the fifteen books of his Metamorphoses, uses these decisive words:

"*Sunt quoque mutatæ ter quinque volumina formæ.*"

Trist. i. l. 117.

In this view, the library of Alexandria appears to have been much less considerable, than is usually imagined. Two or three hundred of these volumes might be included in one of our folios. Nay, what is more, the remaining works of all the Roman poets, from Livius Andronicus to Maurus Terentianus, are comprehended in two octavo volumes, printed at Geneva, in 1627. What a pompous figure would all these books have made (excuse the anachronism) in the Alexandrian library! The Roman poets in a thousand volumes!



it was collected; nor do we find, that they left any translations into the Greek, except that of the Bible.

Nor has Strabo, a traveller of taste and curiosity, who had a favourable opportunity of knowing what this country afforded, when he accompanied his friend Ælius Gallus, as far as the borders of Ethiopia, furnished us with any accounts, which can induce us to entertain higher notions of Egyptian learning.

For these reasons our author is of opinion, that Egypt, though civilized when Greece was in a state of barbarity, never got beyond mediocrity, either in the arts of peace or war; and consequently, that Homer could not derive any considerable degree of knowledge from that country.

What share Homer had in dressing up and modelling the fables of the heathen gods can, at this time, be little more than matter of mere conjecture.

‘It would however, says Mr. Wood, be unreasonable to think, that they were of his own creation . . . I should suppose that the part of the poet’s fiction, which dishonours his deities with the weakness and passions of human nature, was founded on popular legends and vulgar opinion, for which every good poet, from Homer to Shakespeare, has thought proper to have great complaisance.’

In this chapter, where our author shews us, that the *scenery* of Homer’s mythology is Grecian, he has made several ingenious remarks.—Having traced out the various movements of Jupiter, Neptune, and Juno, in the 13th and 14th books of the *Iliad*, he says,

‘When I attempted to follow the steps of these poetical journeys, in my eye, from Mount Ida, and other elevated situations on the Æolian and Ionian side of the Ægean sea, I could take in so many of them, as to form a tolerable picture of the whole. But I could not make this experiment, with the same success, from any station in European Greece. This induces me to suppose that the composition is Asiatic; and that the original idea of Neptune and Juno’s journey was most probably conceived in the neighbourhood of Troy.’

Homer, mentioning the rebellious giants, scaling the heavens, says,

Οσσαν ἐπ’ Οὐλυμπω μεμασαν θειμεν, αὐταρ ἐπ’ Οσση  
Πηλιον εἰροσιφυλλον. Od. xi. 314.

Virgil, speaking of the same attempt, expresses himself thus:

Ter sunt conati imponere Pelio Ossam  
Scilicet, atque Ossæ frondosum involvere Olympum.

Georg. i. 281.

Homer’s

Homer's order is, Olympus, Offa, Pelion; Virgil's is Pelion, Offa, Olympus.

'It was by no means, says Mr. Wood, a matter of indifference, which mountains were to be employed, or in what order they were to be piled, to effect this daring escalade... There was an old tradition in Greece, which is preserved there to this day, that Offa and Olympus were originally different parts of the same mountain, of which the first formed the summit, and the latter the base, till they were separated by an earthquake. It is not improbable, but that their size and shape \*, as they appear under an eastern point of view, should have given rise to this tradition, and perhaps suggested to the inventor of the fable, or, if you please, to the poet, who first adapted it to the Grecian scenery, the order of piling them one upon another. But Virgil, who never saw, or never attended to this prospect, has deviated both from Homer and nature in placing those mountains, so as to form an inverted pyramid.'

With respect to the difficulties, under which Virgil laboured, in adapting the beauties of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* to a later age and different meridian, our author has this very judicious observation.

'Whenever Homer attempted to surprize and astonish his audience with something strange, conforming himself to the known state of the globe in his days, he carried them far west of his own country, to the unfrequented coast of Italy. But science, unluckily for both poets, making her progress in the same western direction, had, before Virgil's time, dissipated that darkness (so favourable to the marvellous,) in which Italy was involved, in the heroic ages. The author of the *Æneid* found Circe's island in his neighbourhood, and the country of the Læstrigons among the gardens of the Roman nobility. The distance of the scene, which was so convenient to Homer, ceased to have its operation with regard to the Roman poet, whose countrymen, however credulous of eastern wonders, had not so much faith in romantic stories of strange adventures nearer home. I dare say the Ithaca of Homer never raised a smile in his contemporary audience; though the Romans, to whom this little island was a familiar object in their passage between Italy and Greece, treat it in a style of jocular natural enough from the masters of the world to so diminutive a kingdom.'

As this work abounds with observations, which cannot fail of being entertaining to every reader of classical taste and learning, we shall resume the subject in our next Review.

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\* Strabo takes notice of this circumstance.

V. *Devotional Pieces, compiled from the Psalms and the Book of Job. To which are prefixed, Thoughts on the devotional Taste, on Sects, and on Establishments.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

IN the essay prefixed to these pieces, the author, Mrs. Barbauld, considers that part of religion, which consists in devotion, as an object of sentiment and feeling. Its seat, she says, is in the imagination and passions; and it has its source in that relish for the sublime, the vast, and the beautiful, by which we taste the charms of poetry, and other compositions, that address our finer feelings, rendered more lively and interesting by a sense of gratitude for personal benefits.

From this consideration she proceeds to enquire, what causes have contributed to check the operations of religious impressions among those, who have steady principles, and are well disposed to virtue.

In the first place, she observes, ‘There is nothing more prejudicial to the feelings of a devout heart, than a habit of disputing on religious subjects. Free enquiry is necessary to establish a rational belief; but a disputatious spirit, and fondness for controversy, gives the mind a sceptical turn, and an aptness to call in question the most established truths. It is impossible to preserve that deep reverence for the Deity, with which we ought to regard him, when all his attributes, and even his very existence become the subject of familiar debate.’ . . .

Secondly, ‘Philosophy, in some respects, exerts an influence perhaps rather unfavourable to the fervor of simple piety. It does indeed enlarge our conceptions of the Deity, and gives us the sublimest ideas of his power and extent of dominion; but it raises him too high for our imaginations to take hold of, and in a great measure destroys that affectionate regard, which is felt by the common class of pious christians . . . It represents the Deity in too abstracted a manner to engage our affections. A being without hatred and without fondness, going on in one steady course of even benevolence, neither delighted with praises, nor moved by importunity, does not interest us so much, as a character open to the feelings of indignation, the soft relentings of mercy, and the partialities of particular affections . . . We are likewise too scrupulous in our public exercises, and too studious of accuracy. A prayer strictly philosophical must ever be a cold and dry composition.’ . . .

Thirdly, ‘a circumstance, which most effectually operates to check devotion, is ridicule. Of this nature is Swift’s well-known jest of “Dearly beloved Roger,” which whoever has strong  
upon



upon his memory, will find it impossible to attend with proper seriousness to that part of the service . . . Another species of ridicule to be avoided, is that kind of sneer often thrown upon those, whose hearts are giving way to honest emotion. There is an extreme delicacy in all the finer affections, which makes them shy of observation, and easily checked.'

Fourthly, 'We should not be too scrupulously afraid of superstition. It shews great ignorance of the human heart, and the springs by which its passions are moved, to neglect taking advantage of the impression, which particular circumstances, times, and seasons naturally make upon the mind.'

Having considered the various causes, which contribute to deaden the feelings of devotion, the author enquires, in what manner they are affected by the different modes of religion, by sects and establishments.

Part of what she says on this head is as follows :

'In a sect, which is always in some degree a persecuted one, the strong union, and entire affection of its followers, the sacrifice they make to principle, the force of novelty, and amazing power of sympathy, all contribute to cherish devotion. It rises even to passion, and absorbs every other sentiment. A strain of eloquence, often coarse indeed, but strong and persuasive, works like leaven in the heart of the people. But this stage cannot last long. The heat of persecution abates, and the fervor of zeal feels a proportionable decay . . . Now comes on the period of reasoning and examination . . . Opinions are canvassed. Their ministers gain respect as writers, and their pulpit-discourses are studied and judicious . . . Then is the second period. The third approaches very fast. Men grow tired of a controversy, which becomes insipid from being exhausted. Persecution has not only ceased ; it begins to be forgotten ; and from the absence of opposition in either kind springs a fatal and spiritless indifference. That sobriety, industry, and abstinence from fashionable pleasures, which distinguished the fathers, has made the sons wealthy ; and eager to enjoy their riches they long to mix with that world, a separation from which was the best guard to their virtues . . .

'An establishment affects the mind by splendid buildings, music, the mysterious pomp of ancient ceremonies ; by the sacredness of peculiar orders, habits, and titles ; by its secular importance ; and by connecting with religion, ideas of order, dignity, and antiquity. It speaks to the heart, through the imagination and the senses ; and though it never can raise devotion so high, as it does in a beginning sect, it will preserve it from ever sinking into contempt.'

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\* If the peculiar advantages of a sect, continues this ingenious writer, were well understood, its followers would not be impatient of these moderate restraints, which do not rise to persecution, nor affect any of their more material interests. For do they not bind them closer to each other, cherish zeal, and keep up the love of liberty? What is the language of such restraints? do they not say, with a prevailing voice, Let the timorous and the worldly depart; no one shall be of this persuasion, who is not sincere, disinterested, conscientious.'

These are some of the observations and sentiments, which are opened, explained, and corroborated, in this essay. What we have extracted are independent passages, merely calculated to give our readers a general notion of what the author has advanced on the subject of devotional taste.

\* In the subsequent collection of devotional pieces, all the psalms, which would bear it, are given entire; others, where the connected sense could be preserved, with such an omission, have only the exceptionable parts left out; and a third class is formed of separate passages, scattered through several pieces, which are attempted to be formed into regular and distinct odes.'

The learned reader, who loves to see the train of thought pursued by the Psalmist, may probably consider these separate passages as *disiecti membra poetæ*. But it should be remembered, that these compositions are designed for the use of the devout christian, and not for the entertainment of the speculative critic. However, they appear to be connected with taste and judgment.

Indeed the Psalms of David are compositions of a desultory kind. The transitions unexpected, frequent, and sometimes remote. The connection of the thoughts is often imperceptible; and the sentiments may be frequently transposed, without the least disadvantage.

The beauty most observable by a modern reader is not a regular arrangement of ideas, but a union of the boldest figures of eastern poetry, with a simplicity, which makes them intelligible to a common understanding; the most sublime conceptions of the Supreme Being, expressed with the deepest reverence, and at the same time with all the warmth and pathos of personal gratitude and affection.

We have only to observe, that the editor has made choice of the translation of the Psalms, which was published in the fifth year of James I. 1607, and usually forms a part of the Bible. In this translation the spirit of the original is frequently lost by a scrupulous adherence to the literal construction of the Hebrew, or rather to the interlineary version of Arias

Montanus. The translation annexed to our Liturgy, which was made by Tyndal and Coverdale, about the year 1532, and afterwards reviewed by archbishop Cranmer, is thought by many to be easier and fitter for devotion than the other. But each has its advocates; and which, upon the whole, deserves the preference, we shall not here pretend to determine.

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IV. *The History of the Cases of Controverted Elections, which were tried and determined during the First Session of the Fourteenth Parliament of Great Britain.* XV. Geo. III. By Sylvester Douglas, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinson.

THE establishment of an equitable and permanent mode of procedure in determining controverted elections, is a matter of the last importance to the preservation of public liberty; and, to the honour of the present age, it has had the signal merit of adding this great pillar to the fabric of the British constitution. It is, indeed, not easy to conceive, notwithstanding the many boasted acquisitions obtained by our ancestors in favour of the people, from a numerous and oppressive aristocracy, and afterwards from the royal despotism, how the freedom of the nation could possibly be founded upon a basis inviolably secure, before this memorable epoch. The suffrages of the constituents in their choice of members of parliament, were in fact, but a nominal exertion of their inherent rights, while the house of commons assumed the prerogative of determining the validity of elections, upon no other principle than that of their own arbitrary will and pleasure.

To enumerate in how many instances, even almost invariably, this sacred privilege of the people had been audaciously infringed, in open violation of all the rules of decency and justice, would exhibit such a picture of the wantonness of usurped power, as is hardly to be equalled in the decisions of any assembly that ever shared the supreme authority of a nation. Happily, we now can look forward to days of a more auspicious prospect, when a regular mode of procedure in controverted elections is established in the house of commons, to remain for ever the great palladium of the noblest privilege of the people.

The issue of the trials in cases of contested elections, however, would still be extremely precarious, and might often be inconsistent with each other, unless certain rules of determination were uniformly observed, by which the judgment of the committee should be regulated in all future decisions. To establish a system of judicial procedure in those cases, is the laud-



laudable design of the work before us; the author of which is justly entitled to the grateful acknowledgments of the public, for the zeal and industry with which he has prosecuted an undertaking of so much importance to national liberty, and the justice and honour of parliament.

Mr. Douglas premises the History with a learned and elaborate Introduction, divided into three sections; in the first of which he gives a general detail of the jurisdiction exercised by the house of commons in the trial of controverted elections, from the first commencement of this authority, to the celebrated act procured by Mr. Grenville, for establishing the present mode of trial. It is but justice to the author to observe, that in this historical account he discovers not only an accurate and profound knowledge of the English constitution, but makes many observations that are judicious and highly worthy of attention.

In the second section, he considers the authority of precedents in cases of controverted elections, and establishes their validity by the strongest arguments. The very important nature of the subject, as well as the satisfactory manner in which he treats it, requires that we lay before our readers what he advances relative to a doctrine which had been suggested, of a pernicious tendency; viz. that the proceedings and determinations of one committee cannot, and ought not to be of any authority, to bind any future committee, in the trial of similar questions. In refutation of this erroneous opinion, he thus proceeds.

‘ A committee for trying controverted elections, differs in one respect from most other courts of justice in this kingdom: because the members of it unite in them the double capacity of judges and jurymen. They are to enquire into facts, as well as to determine the law. Now, as to that part of their proceedings, which may be compared to a verdict at common law, where they declare, upon their oaths, what the facts of the case are, I agree that such declaration can have no binding authority in other cases, or in other committees. But neither can the verdict of one jury ever bind another. This is an obvious consequence of the nature of the thing. The facts are to be found from the evidence, which is, and must be various, in every different case. Besides, every fact is a specific, individual, distinct thing, different from every other fact. But the evidence of the law does not vary. It is, or ought to be, the same. A rule of law, is a general, abstract, permanent maxim, equally applicable to innumerable individual cases; and one court cannot declare it to be different from what another court has determined it to be, without the one, or the other, being in the wrong.

‘ It is therefore only in the character of judges, and as men appointed, upon oath, to declare and expound the law of elections, that I think the members of one committee are (under certain restrictions) bound to adhere to former decisions of the same questions.

‘ Those who think differently, must build their opinion upon one of two grounds: believing, either, that the reasons, which render precedents of authority in the courts of Westminster-hall, will not apply to committees of the house of commons; or (if they should apply), that the proceedings and determinations of those committees, cannot be preserved and reported, in so complete and authentic a manner, as those of courts of law.

‘ On the first of those heads, it will be proper to examine what the reasons are, which give to precedents of cases adjudged in the courts of law, the authority which they undoubtedly possess. “ If,” says the Commentator on the Laws of England, “ it is asked how the general customs or maxims, which form the law of the land, are to be known, and by whom their validity is to be determined, the answer is, by the judges, in the several courts of justice. Judicial decisions are the principal and most authoritative evidence, that can be given, of such a custom as shall form part of the common law. It is therefore an established rule to abide by former precedents, where the points come again in litigation; as well to keep the scale of justice even, and not liable to waver with every new judge’s opinion; as also, because the law, in that case, being solemnly declared and determined, what before was uncertain, and, perhaps, indifferent, is now become a permanent rule, which it is not in the breast of any subsequent judge to alter, or vary from, according to his private sentiments, he being sworn to determine, not according to his own private judgment, but according to the known laws and customs of the land; not delegated to pronounce a new law, but to maintain and expound the old one.”

‘ Now does not every one of those reasons apply, with equal force, to courts for trying controverted elections? Do they not equally apply to all courts of justice, in every free country? They certainly do. And why? Because they are founded, not on any positive regulations of the courts of Westminster-hall, nor any arbitrary written institutions, but on the universal and immutable basis of justice, sense, and policy. Indeed, it is an observation well warranted by history, that justice has been impartially, and consistently administered in different countries, and in different tribunals, in proportion to the authority which has been given to former decisions, in the trial of subsequent causes. It is that alone, which can keep the scale of justice even, and both prevent it from wavering with the different opinions of different judges, and from rising or falling with their different prejudices, and biases, either of inclination or interest. Nay,

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we may go farther, and say, that it is to that, more than any other cause, that we owe the admirable uniform system of law, which distinguishes the English constitution so much, from that of most other countries. To attain the same uniformity and consistency in the law of elections, which prevails in every other branch of our law, was, I am persuaded, one of the great objects of the legislature, when they passed the statute of the 10th of Geo. III. and therefore it is to be wished, that a doctrine may never be countenanced, either by lawyers, or members of parliament, which would effectually destroy that chief purpose of the statute.

‘ But it will be said, that men chosen by ballot, and, therefore, many of them unacquainted with the law, cannot be competent judges of it, and that, consequently, it would be absurd, to give to a decision of theirs, equal weight with a solemn determination of a court of common law, composed of men who have the advantage of the *viginti annorum lucubrationes*, and, by their personal knowledge of the decisions of their predecessors, and the *præteritorum memoria eventorum*, are enabled to declare what the law is, and has been.

‘ In answer to this, in the first place, some, perhaps, will think, that men of good sense, whose minds have been enlarged by education, assisted by the nice discussion which able counsel, opposed to each other, always give to every litigated question, are nearly as capable of deciding a new point, as men of more practice and experience; and that, with the same assistance, when the point is not new, they will have the precedents laid before them; and will then, in like manner, be equally capable of squaring their’s with the former determinations. In the mean time, if the design of the present imperfect undertaking should stimulate others, more able than I am, to continue to report the decisions of succeeding committees, future committeemen will have themselves to blame, if they are not acquainted with them. Young members will recur to the experience of the old; and every general election will produce a sort of public school of election law, where they may, by degrees, become possessed of the *præteritorum memoria eventorum*, as much as the judges of Westminster-hall.

‘ In the second place, it is to be considered, that many points are, as to the public, indifferent in themselves, and, therefore, it is not of much consequence how they are at first decided, though it is of the utmost consequence; once they are decided, not to alter them. In Westminster-hall, the judges have been so sensible of this, that, when points have been determined, in times less enlightened, or by judges of less liberal minds, than their own, in a manner which they have thought unreasonable, yet, because they were so determined, they have held themselves concluded, and bound by them.’

Among many others, which might be produced, he specifies two remarkable instances, from the books of law, how unwill-



ling the judges are to break through the uniformity of decision, even where they disapprove of the original determination. After clearly evincing the propriety, that, in similar instances, a scrupulous adherence to the authority of decided cases, should likewise to apply to election committees, he acknowledges that the authority of the latter is, and ought to be, subject to many qualifications and restrictions.

' They must not, says he, be *flatly unjust, or absurd*; they must be decisions of points immediately before the court, and absolutely necessary to the determination of the cause; they must not be hasty opinions, formed, and adhered to, before the question has been argued by the counsel on both sides; they will have most weight when agreeable to general principles, and consonant to other determinations; a succession of similar decisions will, as they accumulate, give a growing authority to the first adjudication; and a point so confirmed will be much more irresistible than the first judgment of a committee, acting in the infancy of this new tribunal; finally, there is no doubt, but that the comparative learning and merit of the majority of those who compose different committees, will reflect a comparative lustre and credit on their respective proceedings: in like manner, as a decision of a Coke, a Hale, or a Holt, carries with it a sort of authority much more forcible than that of more obscure, or less virtuous judges.'

He next invalidates another objection to the authority of precedents in election cases, that their history cannot be preserved in a manner equally complete and authentic with that of the cases decided in the courts of common law. In answer to this objection, we cannot help considering his own example in the work before us, as no less decisive than the rational and convincing arguments which he produces on the subject; and in support of this remark, it will be sufficient to present our readers with the account of the manner in which these cases have been preserved.

' It will in the mean time be proper to mention, that, for the most part, I attended the committees myself through the whole course of their proceedings, except where two, or more, were sitting at once, or where the cause was merely an enquiry into disputed facts, and, as it were, a congeries of *nisi prius* causes. As to such cases, though, for the sake of mentioning every one that was tried during the session, I have inserted them; yet, as they did not turn upon questions of law, I took no pains to give a full history of them, but have only preserved the general heads, together with the event, and any points of evidence which I thought deserved to be remembered. When any accident happened to prevent my attendance, I had often the good fortune to receive from the best authority, (that of the counsel on both sides) an account of the questions and arguments.

ments. Indeed, if there is any degree of merit in any part of this work, it is greatly owing to the most ready communication of papers and notes, which I received from some of my friends at the bar.

‘ Where the whole cause turned upon a mere question of law, I have been careful to state it, as nearly as I could, in the very words in which it was stated by the counsel. Where the question of law arose out of admitted facts, I have transcribed those facts from the paper containing them, given in to the committee, by consent. Where it seemed proper to report the facts, and they were not agreed upon, but proved by evidence, I have from the mouth of the witnesses, taken down what they proved, with a scrupulous intention (at least) of being accurate; and in several instances, I have had an opportunity of comparing my notes with the minutes of the clerk. Where the committee, by a formal resolution, determined any preliminary point, I have most commonly given that resolution in the very words of the chairman.

‘ I have examined every reference to the Journals in the original, without trusting, in a single instance, either to Carew, or the octavo book on the law of elections; and I have transcribed all the last determinations, as well those concerning the places where the present causes arose, as those which were cited in argument, with the most punctilious attention; and the cases in the Journals, which were either mentioned at the bar, or which appeared to me so apposite to the illustration of the case which I was reporting, as to deserve being inserted in the notes subjoined to that case, I have also transcribed with the same exactness.

In the account of the arguments of counsel, I have thought it most consistent with my design, to give all those on one side together, without distinguishing those of the different counsel, because there must, of necessity, be a degree of repetition when two people speak largely on the same subject. For a similar reason I have frequently intirely omitted the replies.

‘ To conclude, it is proper to warn the reader (though it will probably occur of itself) that the arguments of counsel, contained in the following reports, are not to be considered as their private opinions on the different questions; but merely as topics, furnished by the learning and ingenuity of advocates, in behalf of their clients. On this subject I am sure all the gentlemen at the bar will be ready to adopt the words of Cicero, in his oration for Cluentius. *Sed errat vehementer, si quis in orationibus nostris, quas in judiciis habuimus, auctoritates nostras consignatas se habere, arbitratur.*’

In the third introductory section, the author delineates the constitution of committees for trying controverted elections, and the manner of proceeding in them.

The number of cases related in these two volumes is twenty-four, beginning with that of the borough of Milborn-Port,

in Somersetshire, and concluding with North-Berwick, &c., in Scotland; which were both tried during the last session of parliament. Almost all the Cases, as well as the Introduction, are succeeded by explanatory notes, in which the author shews not only great accuracy, but also an extensive acquaintance with the records of parliament, and courts of law, and with the history of the British constitution.—The publication of a work of this nature, so faithfully and judiciously conducted, must afford pleasure to every lover of his country; and we earnestly hope, that Mr. Douglas will persevere in the execution of a plan, which is admirably calculated for the establishment of justice in those important determinations. Such a work, while indispensably necessary to members of parliament and counsel, will be useful to the public in general.

VII. *A Treatise on Forest-Trees: containing not only the best Methods of their Culture hitherto practised, but a Variety of new and useful Discoveries, the Result of many repeated Experiments, &c. To which are added, Directions for the Disposition, Planting, and Culture of Hedges, by observing which, they will be handsomer and stronger Fences in five Years, than they now usually are in ten.* By William Boutcher. 4to. 15s. Boards. Murray.

THIS work is divided into thirty-seven chapters, treating severally of the different kinds of trees, native or foreign, and species of each, proper to be cultivated in the open air, for profit or pleasure, in Britain. To which are added, four chapters, On the Propagation of Trees by Layers—On Grafting and Inoculation—On Forests or Woods—And on making Trees fit for Removal, that have stood uncultivated, and too thick, in Nurseries or Woods.

In treating on these subjects the author has frequently deviated from the common practice; and has, with much judgment, substituted other methods, founded on many experiments, and long successful practice: whereof we shall here take notice of several instances,

It has been a common opinion, and is directed by many approved authors, to raise trees upon a poorer soil than that on which they are to be transplanted, and remain. Our author says he adhered to this rule early in life, but has found, from repeated trials, and long experience, that where the seminary and nursery are of a meagre soil, the plants, from receiving such harsh and unfriendly food in their youth, contract diseases, which, if not immediately mortal, are certainly incurable; they will have bad roots, be hide-bound, their  
branches



branches weak and crooked, and into whatever soil they are afterwards planted out, will never arrive to that magnitude, and become so stately handsome trees, as those that are nursed in a generous soil.

But though the author advises to raise trees on a good soil, he desires to be understood of such as is naturally so, and not what had been lately forced and pampered with dung; or at least before the dung has been mellowed, and reduced to the consistence of earth; for otherwise, that good land forced with dung is more baneful to trees in general, than even the poorest soils.

‘ I am not surprised, says he, at the frequent complaints made by gentlemen on the trees they often have from the nurseries about Edinburgh. I know from some quarters they have too good cause for such complaints. I have seen considerable portions of these gardens, covered five or six inches deep with new made horse and cow dung, immediately dug into the ground, and, without the intervention of a single week, planted with trees and hedge plants. I should be sorry to think, nor do I believe, that many of my readers will require a description of the effects arising from this shameless practice; but, to the few yet quite uninformed, I shall only mention, that from this corruption at the root of the plant, after standing some time, it will become blistered, which blisters will contain vermin, and these vermin, by eating the roots, occasion a fester; that, communicating with the juices in the body, will contaminate it also; make it become scabbed and hide-bound, to a degree no remedy will cure; and from these unnatural shoots, they are boasted of as fine healthful plants, without reflecting on the latent poison in their veins.’

In treating on the culture of trees, the author takes notice of the soils most suitable to each kind, and therefore thought it unnecessary to make a long dissertation on soils most proper to be chosen for a nursery, especially as those persons who intend to raise trees, must, in general, put up with the best they can get. And also because it cannot be expected that in any spot of land of so small an extent as is requisite for a nursery, the soil will be so various as to suit particularly the different plants to be raised upon it. The soil recommended by our author as the most proper for this purpose in general, is that which is loose and dry, reduced to the smallest particles by digging and raking; and which, if of a generous nature, does not require great depth. But the worst quality of the worst land, is that which nearest approaches to heavy moist clay, wherein the trees will neither root liberally, nor does our usual weather in winter and spring admit of its being laboured but at particular, and frequently too late periods: whence

whence it is impossible that business can be carried on to any considerable extent, seasonably, in such grounds.

It is a common observation that the plants of white or black thorn in hedges are frequently so stunted in their growth, so weak, crooked, and thin at bottom, that they are no defence against any cattle; yet when these are cut down close to, or near the ground, new shoots are produced that soon grow so thick and strong, that even hogs are not able to make their way through such parts of the hedge, where the old roots stand pretty close. The same thing is observable in trees, which though weak, ill shaped, or crooked, by cutting them down to the ground, new shoots are produced from the old roots, which being trained with single stems, become strong, straight trees, greatly superior to the former trees that sprung from the same roots.

The reason of this difference in the new and old trees, is to be accounted for from the different proportion of their roots; which being insufficient to nourish the old plants, they therefore declined, and became weak and stunted; but by cutting them down, the roots furnish the young shoots with such abundant nourishment, that they are pushed on with surprising vigour. This appears to be the case of plants in general: they receive their nourishment principally from their roots, and the greater number of roots they have, in proportion to their branches above ground, the more plentifully they are nourished, and the more luxuriantly they grow. This is observable not only in trees, but in many sorts of grasses, which grow up quicker upon being cut down than they did before, and than they do after they advance to maturity; and for the same reason: the young grass is furnished with a greater proportion of nourishment at first than afterwards, when the plants grow larger.

Upon this principle the author has founded his system of repeated transplantation of trees till they are advanced in age and height, sometimes to thirty feet; and this without endangering their lives, or checking their growth: because the growth of the trees above ground is abated by cutting them down, and of their branches by pruning; while, at the same time, their roots are encouraged to multiply and grow large, the proportion of their heads that receive, and their roots that furnish the nourishment, is entirely changed.

To explain this the more clearly we shall extract some particulars from the culture of the oak, in the method recommended by our author, p. 34, where he enumerates seventeen species of oak; whereof the common English oak being the most valuable, what follows relates chiefly to that species.

‘ This

\* This tree is usually planted out for good when very young, from the general belief that it will not succeed at any considerable age; and indeed, from the common methods of its culture, the observation is too well founded. But by following better rules, which I shall here endeavour to give, and which are the result of very considerable practice, it will transplant with certain success, to a large size.

\* No tree requires more address, to make a handsome well-proportioned free-growing plant, than the oak; none is more neglected, though none more worthy our attention. It is rare to see a straight uniform plantation of them, but where they are crowded very thick together, or drawn up by the shelter of other plants.

\* The common method of raising oaks, is, by sowing them in beds, very thick, and in that condition letting them stand two, and sometimes three years. They are naturally carrot-rooted, and run straight down into the earth, with few, and sometimes no fibres; and by standing in this situation for that time, they are drawn up tall and slender; and their roots having become hard and woody, the cutting away of these roots, to a proper length, which they must necessarily be, becomes a very violent operation on the plants; by which means many of them fail, and the remainder, from so severe a check, will be several years in gathering roots, and of course, during that time, will be stunted, cross growing, and shrubby. But, to remedy these evils, pursue the following system, from the observation of which I have long been successful, in rearing many beautiful, straight, and well-proportioned oaks-

\* Having provided yourself with acorns in the autumn, gathered from the handsomest and most vigorous trees, in fair weather, spread them in an airy covered place, and turn them frequently till quite dry; when you find they are so, mix them with sand, or loose light earth, and let them be protected from vermin, frost, and moisture, till about the middle of February.

\* At this time, or as soon after it as the weather will admit, prepare, by a clean digging and raking, a spot of good natural soil; and, to render the crop equal and uniform, try the goodness of your seeds, by throwing them into a tub with water, when the fresh will sink to the bottom, and the rotten or defective float on the surface. The quality of the acorns being thus ascertained, make shallow drills across the ground, with a small hoe, at eighteen or twenty inches distance; and in these drop your acorns, about two inches separate, covering them, with the back of a rake, two inches deep; let the ground be raked smooth, and kept clean and mellow during the summer months.

\* The beginning of April, the succeeding spring, cut them under ground as directed for the beech, and let them remain till the spring after.

The



The method directed by the author for cutting the roots of the beech, is as follows :

‘ In March, next season after sowing the mast, with a spade made very sharp for the purpose, undermine the roots as they stand in the drills, and cut them over between four and five inches under ground.

‘ The following autumn, or spring, you may either raise the whole, or give them another cutting below ground, when gently raising such as are too thick, leave the remainder, at proper distances, to stand another season. This manner of cutting the roots dexterously, has, in a great measure, the same effect as transplanting.

‘ Those you have raised, after smoothing the bruised and broken roots, and cut away some of the small hairy fibres, must be planted in lines two feet asunder, and nine or ten inches in the line ; and if the soil is good, and the plants have grown vigorously, they should remain here only two years, but in poor land they may remain three.

‘ Those left in the drills where sown, are, next autumn, or spring, to be treated as these.’—

‘ From this situation, as soon as their buds begin to swell, let these oak-trees be carefully raised, without tearing their roots or fibres ; and the ground being ready, separate the straight free-growing plants from the crooked and shrubby ; shorten any downright or bruised roots, but be very sparing of the small fibres ; and plant the straight trees in one quarter of the nursery, in rows, two feet asunder, and nine inches in the row ; and the crooked ones in another quarter, at the same distances ; let these plants be as little time as possible out of the ground ; for this purpose, raise few of them at a time, and if you have the command of four men, they will suddenly dispatch a great number of them ; that is, by one man raising the plants, another pruning them, and giving them to the planters, and two planting.

‘ If the land is good, and the seasons have been kindly, the straight plants may be removed in two years ; but when either of these circumstances is otherways, they may continue three seasons.

‘ The crooked and brushy trees, having stood two years in the nursery, must be cut over by the ground, and remain two years longer ; and observe, that as soon as their shoots are four or five inches long, you pinch off all but the most promising one ; from whence the whole strength and juices of the root will be exerted, in support of this single shoot.’

Here the author cautions nurserymen against the common practice in transplanting trees, of dibbling plants of one or two years old, or older ; dibbling being hurtful to every species of trees and plants, particularly to the oak, and all the nut-bearing carrotty rooted kinds, especially in strong stiff ground :

ground : for the roots of plants squeezed into a hole, made hard by the strong pressure of a dibble, must retain the moisture in wet weather, so as to endanger their rotting ; and in dry weather will become so hard, as to prevent the tender fibres from extending, and procuring nourishment.

‘ I have, says he, often made the experiment of this in cabbages, collyflowers, potatoes, &c. planted on the same ground, the same day ; and it is amazing how much larger those were, put in with the spade or trowel loosely, than those dibbled.’

This is an observation of importance, and merits the attention of all planters, nothing being more common than dibbling young plants of all sorts.

‘ The trees managed as here directed will be of a proper age and size, for removing to large plantations for good, and from the abundance of their roots, and good preparation of their bodies, they will resist the most violent winds : but such as incline to provide large trees of the common English oak for future purposes, must proceed farther.

‘ Having fixed on a spot of good mellow ground, that has been well dug the preceding autumn, give it another digging about the end of March or beginning of April ; level it well, and pick out all remaining stones and root-weeds. As soon as their buds begin to swell, raise such trees, the straightest and finest of them, that you intend to cultivate farther in the nursery way ; still contrive to shorten such roots as tend downwards, and smooth the spreading ones that are long, or have been wounded with the spade in raising them ; and where there are abundance of fibres, you may likewise cut away some of the smallest ; which if the trees are not immediately planted will decay, and sometimes bring a mouldiness about the principal roots. You must also cut off all ill placed cross branches from their bodies, leaving only a few of the smaller at proper intervals, to detain the sap, for the augmentation of the trunk ; and let not a bud of the leading shoot be ruffled, as that is difficult to repair in the oak by any other means than cutting over the tree, close to the ground. Let these operations be done in the gentlest manner, not shaking the plants, that as much earth as possible may continue about their roots.

‘ The trees being now properly prepared, plant them in lines five feet asunder, and two feet and a half in the line ; give them a plentiful watering to settle the earth to their roots ; and if you repeat this once a fortnight, for three or four times, the season being dry, it will much promote their growth. In this nursery they may remain, in good generous land, four, but in poor and hungry, five or six years. Let the ground be annually dug between the lines, and the trees pruned every spring with the same care and attention as at removing them. Cutting off the young and tender branches, can have no ill effect,

fect, either on the life or growth of the tree ; but the wounds made by lopping off old wood always much weakens, and often produces a gangrene that proves mortal ; in some kinds by excessive bleeding, and in others by imbibing moisture, and communicating it to the body. But if oaks have been neglected, and grown rude, the best season of cutting their large branches is in March : and for the young and tender, any time from autumn till spring is equal.

‘ The trees from this culture will now be fairly rooted, straight, and well-proportioned, and, in an ordinary soil and situation, from ten to twelve feet high ; and those first cut over, will be the largest and handsomest plants.

‘ But to make them proper for transplanting at a larger size, remove them again to any convenient spot of tolerable ground, managing the roots as formerly, and planting them in lines, eight feet asunder, and six feet in the line, watering them plentifully when planted ; where they may continue six or seven years ; by which time they will be about twenty feet high.

‘ If still a reserve of larger is wanted, remove them once more, and plant them twelve feet asunder, give them an abundant watering at planting, and repeat it three or four times, more or less, as the nature of the season requires. In this situation they may remain, ready for whatever new design occurs, for eight or ten years ; when, by a careful removal, and four or five plentiful waterings, the first and second summer, they will grow as luxuriantly as if they had stood in the same soil from the smallest size, and arrive as soon at full maturity ; with this advantage, that the trees, from the regular and timely prunings they have had, must of course be formed to their proper shape, and will require little or no farther trouble.

‘ Though most of the deciduous trees, particularly large plants of them, succeed best being planted in autumn, the oak is one exception to this rule, and is found universally to remove with more safety, and grow more freely, when transplanted in the spring : therefore that season should be invariably observed ; as in wet, or even moist swampy lands, I have often known large plantations of them almost totally destroyed by autumnal or winter planting.

‘ This noble tree, says the author, the monarch of the woods, the boast and bulwark of the British nation, will grow freely in a great variety of soils, now either altogether waste, appropriated to the production of meaner trees, or other more ignoble purposes. This proceeds from not attending to its nature and properties, by making the experiment of planting it on all the various soils ; for though, like the greatest part of other trees, it (particularly at first) affects a sound deep mould, it will notwithstanding, prosper exceedingly on the coarsest moist gravel, loam and sand, or stiff heavy clay, and till, (which most other trees abhor), and that too when these soils are so sterile and hungry, as not to afford a grazing for sheep.’



The culture here recommended for other trees, is in general the same as for the oak ; allowing large room in the nurseries, frequent transplanting, watering, and pruning the side-branches, and encouraging the roots to spread. The distances allowed to the trees in the nurseries, require much room, and the repeated transplantings, and waterings are expensive ; but to ballance these, the extraordinary room allowed need not be lost, as several sorts of plants may be raised between the lines of trees, when planted at wide distances ; particularly turneps, which may be encouraged to grow luxuriantly, by hoeing, and dressing them with coal or other ashes, without injury to the trees, but on the contrary they will be benefited by such culture bestowed on the turneps, and by the shade of their leaves. Another and great advantage in this method of removing trees is, that they do not require to be staked, as they must be in transplanting the common way, otherwise they would be soon blown down by the wind ; but by keeping the bodies of the trees thin of branches, and constantly pruning the larger ones, they are not subject to be blown down by high winds, but are secured against that accident, by the wide spreading of their roots, which support the trees against the force of the winds, even when newly transplanted, and the expence of staking is entirely saved. But the greatest advantage of this method is the health, vigour, and upright growth of the trees, which will afford the owner both pleasure and profit.

In treating of the ash tree, the author mentions the profit he made from half a rood, or the eighth part of an acre, of very bad land, composed chiefly of steril red clay and moss, which he planted with ash trees, six years old, in rows four feet asunder, and two feet distant in the rows ; being intended to produce poles for espalier hedges. At the end of four years he cut them down within five or six inches of the ground, reserving ten for trees upon half the ground. In seven years from their being cut down, he sold half of them for hoops, &c. at forty shillings. In six years more he cut and sold them for fifty shillings ; and at the end of six years more, he sold them at the same price, fifty shillings. He also sold the ten trees at twenty-three years growth, for seven shillings a tree, or £. 3. 10s. but found afterwards, he had sold the last cutting of the coppice under the value, being worth above a third more than he received for it. Thus it appears, that an acre of very indifferent ground, planted in this manner with ash trees, near a market, will yield in twenty-three years £. 115. 10s. or £. 5. 4s. every year per acre, without any other expence than digging the ground for the first five or six years,

years, and cutting the coppice; which is very trifling. He observes, that he had planted these trees too close, and that he should have had considerably more profit from them, had they been planted in rows six feet asunder, and at three feet distance in the rows.

The profit from this spot of very bad land was remarkable; but would have been much greater, had ten trees more been spared for timber on the other half of the ground, and all the twenty suffered to remain till they grew large: this the author was sensible of, but was obliged to cut them all down, from a circumstance he has related. From this example, however, there is great encouragement to plant the ash. It is a quick grower, and near large towns sells at a good price; so that there is hardly any tree more profitable, when planted for coppice, and a competent number of them spared to grow up for timber.

The importance of good hedges both for defence and shelter, are generally known; but it is too evident that they are not often managed in the best manner, so as to render them close and durable: our author treats of them at large, and gives excellent directions for raising them in several new methods, of the white thorn, in his thirty-seventh chapter; and of different plants occasionally, in other parts of his work — A work that abounds with many valuable experiments and observations, which merits the perusal of all gentlemen of landed property, and of every one concerned in the cultivation of land.

The author, in a postscript, acquaints his readers, that he intends to publish a *Treatise on Fruit-Trees*, if this on *Forest-Trees* is favourably received by the public; which we think it is justly entitled to; and cannot doubt, that a person of so much observation and long experience has made very valuable improvements also in this branch of culture. He mentions particularly a method he shall point out for ripening our winter fruits, in all their various situations, at least three weeks earlier than they now are, and at the same time improving them, both in size and flavour.

‘ By prosecuting this plan, says he, we should, to my certain knowledge, eat at least as good fruit at Edinburgh, as they now do at London. And as near as I can judge, much about as good at London as they do at Paris, and by easy means, and without any additional expence to the usual culture, worth naming. Though many are the examples I could give, from the improvements made on the culture of fruit, it may here be sufficient to mention one, That I have eat my own golden pippins at Edinburgh, fully ripe, double the common size, and

in all respects in the highest perfection, the beginning of November.

‘As I have noticed the indiscretion of some authors by writing on all the various branches of gardening, it may here be necessary to inform the ignorant, that I do not subject myself to that just censure, by the proposed work. The culture of fruit and forest-trees, in many material circumstances, are similar, and the study of them entirely consistent with one another; or rather, but two parts of the same plan.’

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VIII. *Journal of the Resolution's Voyage, in 1772, 1773, 1774, and 1775, on Discovery to the Southern Hemisphere. Also a Journal of the Adventure's Voyage, in the Years 1772, 1773, and 1774. With an Account of the Separation of the two Ships, and the most remarkable Incidents that befel each.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Newbery.

IT usually happens, that before the public can be favoured with the genuine and authentic account of any interesting voyage, an attempt is made to seduce their curiosity by some spurious narrative, which, being fabricated with no other view than that of temporary emolument, sacrifices to this object both the accuracy of information and the fidelity of detail. This remark has been exemplified in all the voyages published of late years; and it was not to be expected but the same mercenary artifice would be repeated, in a pretended recital of the adventures of the Resolution, while there remained one sailor who had navigated the vessel, and one scribbler who could avail himself of the imperfect information of such a voyager. Our contempt of fugitive productions of this kind is the more justly excited, as it was known that the journal of the Resolution is in the hands of gentlemen, who we presume are fully qualified for the office of editors, and derive their materials from the most authentic and respectable sources of information,

We meet with instances of misinformation so early as in the Preface to the Journal. It is there said that his majesty intended Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and Mr. Zoffani to bear a part in the voyage. We have reason to believe, his majesty never had such an intention; but was pleased to see that Mr. Banks offered himself, with his friend Dr. Solander, to go on the expedition: that Mr. Zoffani was engaged by Mr. Banks only; and Dr. Lind was proposed by others.



It is further asserted, that these gentlemen were excluded from the voyage, which is by no means true. Mr. Banks, for reasons communicated to the Admiralty, refused to go; in consequence of which, his friends Dr. Solander and Dr. Lind remained at home, with Mr. Zoffani.

Mention is likewise made of a 'protest, signed by the pilot, lieutenant, and master, declaring the Resolution utterly unfit for the voyage.'—But such a protest was never received at the admiralty.

The whole account delivered in the preface, of the reasons of Mr. Banks not going on the voyage, with what is pretended to have been told to his majesty on this subject, is grossly misrepresented, and injurious, in several parts, both to the character of Mr. Banks, and of persons in administration.

Captain Cook is universally known to be a very able navigator, and to possess the various qualifications necessary for conducting such a voyage as that of the Resolution; but he ought not to be extolled at the expence of the merit of others. Real worth stands in no need of servile adulation, to obtain the acknowledgment of the public; and we are persuaded that captain Cook will behold with contempt the incense that is offered him by the author of the preface.

Thus far it was proper to remark upon the instances of misrepresentation which we have discovered, relative to transactions at home. That the information contained in this recital of the voyage, is entitled to no greater degree of credit, will appear from some passages, which shall be specified, and of which we are enabled to determine, upon the best authority.

This Journal is a mere rhapsody, composed of a number of party-coloured shreds, collected from various sources. In the first place, we are presented with a few nautical remarks, chiefly respecting longitudes, latitudes, and the course of the ship, taken from the log-book of one of the sailors, but executed with great inaccuracy. Next follows a recital of historical incidents, &c. by another sailor, of equally *respectable* authority; and lastly appear the *judicious* remarks of the compiler, who, in order to swell the work, has given us large extracts from former navigators, chiefly those contained in Mr. Dalrymple's collection.

Among the various pieces of information with which we are presented by this triumvirate, one is expressed in the following terms.

'But in some places the mountains rose higher than even Mr. Foster (probably Forster) who had traversed the most mountainous

tainous parts of Europe, had ever before beheld. Our Journal has given a drawing of one, among many others, which he says rose *seventeen miles* above the horizon, and whose top reached higher than the clouds.'

Our readers might have expected a point of admiration after this passage; but for the omission of that, the triumvirate must be answerable, who seem to think nothing too marvellous for the credulity of the public. It is very well known, that the *Chimborasso*, the highest mountain in the *Peruvian Cordillera* of the Andes, is elevated between two and three miles above the surface of the sea; and this has hitherto been found the highest hill in the known world.

After the extraordinary information above recited, from which our readers may easily infer what credit is to be given to this Journal, we shall, by way of specimen, insert the account delivered of the transactions at the isles of Middleburgh and Amsterdam.

' Oct. 2, about five in the morning bore away under topails. At six set foreails, and steered W. and W. by N. between the large isle and a small one lying about three leagues to the southward. When they had stretched two or three leagues to the eastward of this island, they could perceive land bearing about W. by N. distance about six or seven leagues. At eight in the morning got close under the land, and anchored in forty-five fathom water. In less than half an hour they were surrounded with Indians, some in canoes, and some swimming, but none came alongside the ships, save one, who brought in his hand the piece of a root which they make use as a token of peace, and presented it to the captain, who received it respectfully, and in return made the Indian a small present. This he also received, and placing it upon the top of his head, sat down on the quarter-deck, and held it there for the space of half a minute. He seemed very desirous of making himself understood, and wanted much to enter into conversation with the Indian they had on board, but their languages were totally different.'

We are assured by unquestionable authority, that the language of these islands, so far from being different from that of Otaheite, is really a dialect of it. But this instance of misrepresentation is not the last we meet with in the Journal. For we have at present under our eye no less than fourteen observations on subsequent passages, communicated to us by gentlemen who have been on the voyage; from which it appears, that the narrative here offered to the public, is not only extremely imperfect, but abounds with fictitious circumstances, which have not the smallest foundation in truth. Considered in every light, it is, in reality, destitute of merit.

The most material facts are misrepresented, the most trifling are related inaccurately, in a style equally coarse and incorrect. In regard to the cuts, they are likewise drawn from fancy; if we except the one respecting the natives of Amsterdam-Isle, which is copied from Mr. Dalrymple's Collection of Voyages. The chart, and track on it, prefixed to the volume, is made by so unskillful an artist, that he did not even know where to place the antarctic circle; for it is here delineated in  $76^{\circ} 30'$ .

We should not have dwelt so much on a performance entitled to so little notice, were we not desirous that the public should suspend their curiosity, till it can be gratified by a work drawn up by the ablest men who performed the voyage, which will contain an authentic account of facts, and observations on natural history, illustrated with the most accurate maps and charts, and embellished with elegant engravings.

IX. *An Humble Address and Earnest Appeal to those respectable Persons in Great Britain and Ireland, who, by their great and permanent Interest in Landed Property, their liberal Education, elevated Rank, and enlarged Views, are the ablest to judge, and fittest to decide, whether a Connection with, or a Separation from the continental Colonies of America, be most for the national Advantage, and the lasting Benefit of these Kingdoms.* By Josiah Tucker, D. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

THE reverend author of this production has repeatedly distinguished himself in the present contest with America, as a strenuous assertor of the supremacy of parliament. Well informed of material facts, from various sources of information, his arguments are, in general, supported with a degree of authority superior to what results from the method of treating the subject merely as a political theorem; and while he guides his enquiry by the more abstract principles of reason, he has intermixed many just and important remarks, relative to the commerce of Great Britain and her colonies.

After opening the Address with a short exordium, Dr. Tucker proceeds to mention three schemes, which have been proposed for terminating the controversy in question; namely, the parliamentary scheme, Mr. Burke's, and his own.

'The first is, says he, to maintain *vi et armis* the supremacy of the mother-country over her colonies, in as full and ample a manner, as over any part of the British dominions.

' Mr.



\* Mr. Burke's is, [though not in express words] to resign or relinquish the power of the British parliament over the colonies, and to erect each provincial assembly into an independent American parliament;—subject nevertheless to the king of Great Britain, with his usual prerogatives:—for which favour of acknowledging the same sovereign, the colonists are to be complimented with the most precious rights, privileges, and advantages of British subjects:—I say, complimented, and complimented even gratuitously; for as to their contributing any proportion, either of men or money, towards the public expence, and in return for those favours—all this is to be entirely left to their own innate goodness and generosity, to do just as they please.

\* My scheme [which Mr. Burke, in his last Speech of March 22, 1775, is pleased to term a *childish* one] is,—To separate totally from the colonies, and to reject them from being fellow-members, and joint-partakers with us in the privileges and advantages of the British empire; because they refuse to submit to the authority and jurisdiction of the British legislature:—offering at the same time to enter into alliances of friendship, and treaties of commerce with them, as with any other sovereign, independent states.

\* Now, in order to determine, which of these schemes is the most eligible;—it would be right to consider, which is the easiest and most practicable,—which is least expensive,—which is likeliest to prevent similar disturbances and disputes for the future, and which will least endanger the English constitution and our domestic tranquility. For all these circumstances ought to be taken into the account, before a due judgment can be formed.

\* In regard to the first, I wish for the present to be silent about it: partly out of respect to that august body, which has given a sanction to it;—partly because it is now upon trial, whether it can be executed or not:—and partly likewise because this must fall of course, if either Mr. Burke's, or mine, should be judged to have the preference. For these reasons, I say, I wish to keep a respectful silence on this head.

\* But in respect to Mr. Burke, I need not stand on so much ceremony. For though he is confessedly a great rhetorician, and can with his magic voice raise a mighty tempest of metaphorical lightnings and thunders:—yet, heaven be praised, there is a period of all his powers: and his *verba ardentia*, his flaming words, are found to end at last (like many other explosions) in noise and smoke. Nor doth it, I humbly apprehend, follow, that the orator is endowed with a greater portion of political discernment than other men, or with more disinterested sincerity, and real love of his country, in making a just and honest application of that discernment;—merely because he has more words at command, and can muster up a greater army of bright similes, and florid expressions.

‘ But be that as it may :—I now consider myself as standing at the bar of the public tribunal : and therefore before the jury is struck, and the trial begins, I humbly beg leave to claim, and to exercise one of the distinguishing privileges of Englishmen in such cases, viz. To except against all such persons in the pannel, who appear to be under a wrong bias, and an undue influence respecting the nature of this dispute.’

The persons against whom the ingenious author excepts, are courtiers and placemen, considered as such ; the whole band of mock patriots, on every account ; the pensioners of foreign powers ; and rank republicans. The jury being struck, he appeals to the landed interest, whether Mr. Burke’s scheme, or his own, is the easiest to be executed, and the most practicable ? It is unnecessary to inform our readers of the inference deduced from the comparison of the two schemes, when the author’s opinion is already known to the public, who are sufficiently conscious of his ability to support it with all the force of argument.

We are then presented with Remarks, divided into four distinct numbers, relating to the Value of the Exports from England to Germany and Holland, and also to the revolted provinces of North America. It appears from a table which the author produces, that, from Christmas 1763, to 1772, the exports to Germany and Holland amounted to 30,294,126l. 11s. 3d. while those to America, during the same period, amounted only to 10,233,103l. 7s. 7d. And yet, according to the author, this very period was more favourable to American exports than any other, for particular reasons, which he enumerates. He next takes a view of the North American imports, which he determines, from facts, to be of far less consequence to Britain than is generally imagined.

In the third Remark, the author enters upon the subject of emigration, which he treats in the following manner :

‘ A set of labourers, or tradesmen resided lately in Great Britain, or Ireland ; and earned their bread by the sweat of their brows. Their natural, or artificial wants might be summed up under the three great, and comprehensive articles of food, rayment, and dwelling. In respect to food, including drinkables, as well as eatables, they paid for it by their labour wages ; and consequently were the means and of employing all those different trades both in town and country, which were concerned in, or connected with, the raising of corn, or the rearing of sheep and cattle, the making of bread, butter, cheese, malt, and malt-liquors, cyder, &c. &c. also in the fattening, killing, dressing, or preparing of flesh, fish, fowl, &c. &c. and in the raising of all sorts of garden-stuff, and other eatables : the like might

might be observed in regard to rayment, traced from the raw material up to the perfect manufacture, and including every article of dress, and all the trades dependent on, and supported by it, throughout all its stages: dwelling is the last article; in which estimate ought to be included not only the original materials for framing the structure of the house, but also its successive repairs; together with all kinds of household goods from the highest to the lowest piece of furniture, and their continual wear and tare.

‘ These persons, who have been thus useful to their country, and have contributed to its trade and riches, both by paying their own rents and taxes, and also by enabling others to pay theirs;—these persons I say, have been inveigled away to leave this country, and to settle in North America.—Here therefore I ask this plain question, What recompence can they possibly make in America, for the loss which hath been occasioned by their leaving England? And what gains will accrue to the mother-country by this flourishing state of her colonies? Begin therefore wherever you please;—examine, I beseech you, this matter to the bottom, and mark the consequences. Food for example, consisting of its various kinds, and including eatables as well as drinkables, common food, I say, must certainly be raised and manufactured on the spot; for a man cannot wait for his dinner till it comes from England. Similar observations will likewise extend to the chief part of every article respecting rayment or cloathing;—not forgetting also housing and furniture. For in all these respects, the principal quantity, and the bulk of the goods, manufactures, or provisions must be procured from adjacent places, and not from a country 3000 miles off. Perhaps indeed a few, a very few elegancies and ornaments of dress or furniture, or of the dainties of the table may still be imported from the mother country. But alas! What are they, if compared with the whole? Perhaps they would not amount to more than a twentieth part of the general consumption.—And most certain it is, that if these emigrants should not settle near the sea coasts of America, but wander higher up the country for hundreds of miles, in pursuit of fresh unpatented tracts of land, (which most new-comers are desirous of doing,) it would then not be a fortieth part of what they would have either used, consumed, or worn, had they still remained inhabitants of Great Britain or Ireland: so little cause hath the mother country to rejoice at this rapid progress of the population of her colonies, arising from, or caused by, emigrations.

‘ But here, I know, it will be said, because it hath very often been said already, “ That though these emigrants might not employ as many persons, or mechanic trades here at home, as they did before they left England; yet they will employ more shipping and navigation, and consequently more sailors than heretofore: sailors are the defence, sailors are the bulwark of



the nation," &c. &c. Now in order to detect this fallacy, as well as the rest, I will here state a case, which must open people's eyes, if any thing can, respecting even the articles of seamen, shipping, and navigation.

' Suppose 1000 tradesmen with their families, watch-makers for instance, settled on one spot somewhere in the neighbourhood of London, [I only mention watch-makers, because it is computed, that about 1000 families, or one third of the city of Geneva are supposed to be of that profession.] Now the first thing which would attract our notice respecting navigation, is to lay in a provision of sea-coals; and a yearly supply of this commodity for 1000 families would employ a good deal of shipping: fish would be the next article, sea-fish especially, whether fresh or salt, in respect to which a good many sailors one time or other must be, or must have been employed: after this, the like observation will extend to cyder, and to other articles brought coast wise; also to wines, brandies, rum, sugars, fruits, oils, &c. &c. imported from abroad: likewise to timber of various kinds for building or repairing, also for making a variety of household goods; to iron, hemp, linen cloth, and other commodities, especially those of the bulky kind: now here I ask, is it possible to conceive, that, were this group of manufacturers to take flight, like a swarm of bees, and settle in some of the towns or provinces of North America, they either would, or could employ as many English seamen in their new situations, as they do at present in their old ones? And can any man be so absurd as to maintain such a paradox? [Remember I limit the matter to English seamen only; for as to Americans, let their number be what it may, Great Britain never was advantaged by them. Not to mention, that several of the American provinces have disputed, or rather denied, long before the present disturbances began, the right of pressing sailors for the navy; though it is well known, that this is the only method whereby a navy can be manned; and though that eminent whig, that upright, learned, and truly-patriotic lawyer [judge Foster] hath demonstratively proved in his Law-Tracts this right to be as legally and constitutionally vested in the crown, as any right whatever.]

' I will therefore take this point relating to sailors for granted: [at least till the contrary shall be proved,] and then it will follow, that British or Irish emigrations are to be considered as being very unfavourable to the increase of English sailors, as well as of English manufacturers; and that the loss and detriment to the mother-country are very great in both respects.'

The remaining part of the Address contains farther considerations on the expediency of the author's plan, of totally relinquishing our American colonies; a measure which he endeavours to prove would be productive of no disadvantage to the British commerce, and might preserve our future tranquility.

quillity.—But the determination of this point we must leave to the wisdom of the landed interest.

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X. *Letters of the late rev. Mr. Laurence Sterne, to his most intimate Friends. With a Fragment in the Manner of Rabelais. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of his Life and Family. Written by Himself. And published by his Daughter, Mrs. Medalle. 3 vols. Small 8vo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Becket.*

THE Letters of Mr. Sterne, lately published, of which we took notice in a former Review\*, were written so much in the peculiar manner of the author of *Tristram Shandy*, that we found not any reason to entertain the smallest doubt of their authenticity. In respect of those in the present collection, without recurring to intrinsic evidence, we are fully satisfied that they are genuine, by being submitted to the public upon the authority of Mrs. Medalle, the author's daughter. The cursory memoirs prefixed, of Mr. Sterne and his family, are acknowledged to have been drawn up for his Lydia (the lady abovementioned), "in case hereafter she might have a curiosity, or a kinder motive to know them." From them we learn that the reverend author was great grandson to archbishop Sterne. His father, who was a lieutenant in Handaside's regiment, married Agnes Hebert, widow of a captain of a good family, in the year 1711, in Flanders, where he then was with the army. The second child produced from this marriage was the memorialist, who was born at † Clonmel in the south of Ireland, Nov. 24, 1713. From hence, his father and mother, with their children, removed to England soon after his birth, and came to the family seat at Elvington, near York. As an author, the character of Mr. Sterne cannot receive either additional fame, or abatement, from his own biography; and we shall therefore only observe, that the short account of his life, contained in these memoirs, terminates about the year 1766, or 1767.

The first four Letters in this collection were written to Mrs. Sterne, before he married her. The following, with which we present our readers as a specimen, places the ardour of his passion in the strongest light.

' You bid me tell you, my dear L. how I bore your departure for S——, and whether the valley where D'Estella stands retains still its looks—or, if I think the roses or jessamines smell as sweet, as when you left it—Alas! every thing has now lost its relish, and look! The hour you left D'Estella I took to my bed.—I was worn out with fevers of all kinds, but most by

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\* See Crit. Rev. for July last.

† *Quare*, Clonmel.

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that fever of the heart with which thou knowest well I have been wasting these two years—and shall continue wasting 'till you quit S——. The good Miss S——, from the forebodings of the best of hearts, thinking I was ill, insisted upon my going to her.—What can be the cause, my dear L. that I never have been able to see the face of this mutual friend, but I feel myself rent to pieces? She made me stay an hour with her, and in that short space I burst into tears a dozen different times—and in such affectionate gusts of passion that she was constrained to leave the room, and sympathize in her dressing-room—I have been weeping for you both, said she, in a tone of the sweetest pity—for poor L's heart I have long known it—her anguish is as sharp as yours—her heart as tender—her constancy as great—her virtues as heroic—Heaven brought you not together to be tormented. I could only answer her with a kind look, and a heavy sigh—and returned home to your lodgings (which I have hired 'till your return) to resign myself to misery—Fanny had prepared me a supper—she is all attention to me—but I sat over it with tears; a bitter sauce, my L. but I could eat it with no other—for the moment she began to spread my little table, my heart fainted within me.—One solitary plate, one knife, one fork, one glass!—I gave a thousand pensive, penetrating looks at the chair thou hadst so often graced, in those quiet, and sentimental repasts—then laid down my knife and fork, and took out my handkerchief, and clapped it across my face, and wept like a child.—I do so this very moment, my L. for as I take up my pen my poor pulse quickens, my pale face glows, and tears are trickling down upon the paper, as I trace the word L.—O thou! blessed in thyself, and in thy virtues—blessed to all that know thee—to me most so, because more do I know of thee than all thy sex.—This is the philtre, my L. by which thou hast charmed me, and by which thou wilt hold me thine whilst virtue and faith hold this world together.—This, my friend, is the plain and simple magic by which I told Miss —— I have won a place in that heart of thine, on which I depend so satisfied, that time, or distance, or change of every thing which might alarm the hearts of little men, create no uneasy suspense in mine—Wast thou to stay in S—— these seven years, thy friend, though he would grieve, scorns to doubt, or to be doubted—'tis the only exception where security is not the parent of danger.—I told you poor Fanny was all attention to me since your departure—contrives every day bringing in the name of L. She told me last night (upon giving me some hartshorn) she had observed my illness began the very day of your departure for S——; that I had never held up my head, had seldom, or scarce ever smiled, had fled from all society—

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that she verily believed I was broken-hearted, for she had never entered the room, or passed by the door, but she heard me sigh heavily—that I neither eat, or slept, or took pleasure in any thing as before ;—judge then, my L. can the valley look so well—or the roses and jessamines smell so sweet as heretofore ? Ah me !—But adieu—the vesper bell calls me from thee to my God !

L. STERNE.'

The Letters in these volumes are in number a hundred and seventeen, among which we meet only with one or two that we remember to have seen formerly published ; and, excepting three, they all are the production of Mr. Sterne. They are, for the most part, familiar letters to intimate friends ; breathing the warmest effusions of a heart overflowing with benevolence, and totally destitute of reserve. Those addressed to Mrs. Sterne, or his daughter, are strongly marked with the feelings of conjugal or paternal affection. On the whole, though it must be acknowledged that these Letters abound with the fallies of an imagination hurried away by innocent levity, and regardless of decorum, they are admirably expressive of the author's particular cast of genius, clearly evincing him, at the same time, to have been an ardent lover of the social virtues, and a man of extraordinary humanity.—Such readers as are pleased with the style and manner of *Tristram Shandy*, will regret the shortness of the Fragment with which this collection concludes.

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XI. *An Abridgment of Penal Statutes.* By William Addington, Esq. one of the Magistrates presiding at the Public-Office, in Bow-Street. 8s. Cadell.

WE cannot inform the reader with precision, whether the present article is a folio, a quarto, or an octavo, for it is printed in the form of a music book ; but we can tell him what is much more essential, that it is a work of great utility, and very deservedly entitled to a place in his library.

The plan which our author has adopted is well calculated to answer the double purpose of clearness and brevity. He first states the offence in one column. In a second, he places the punishment or penalty annexed to it. His third column tells us in what manner the penalty is to be recovered. A fourth describes the application of all penalties. A fifth shews the number of witnesses necessary for the conviction of offenders. The sixth ascertains the number of justices requisite to be present ; and the last column contains a reference to the particular section of the particular statute by which the crime was originally constituted.—The following short extract will give a full idea of the work.

Offences.	Penalties and punishments	Recov. by	Appli- cation.	Wit- nesses	Juf- tices	Statutes
ASHES, &c. in the streets, witnesses not appearing to the summons, or refusing to give evidence concerning any offence cognizable before a magistrate by the act	Not exceeding 40s. in default committed to the house of correction, to hard labour, fans bail or mainp. not exceeding one month, or until, &c.	Distress	Half to the informer, and half to the poor, &c.	1	1 Ap.	32 Geo. II. c. 16. f. 21, 25, 26.
STANDING, plying, or driving for hire with any coach whatsoever within the bills. &c. without licence; (i. e. without a figure)	5 l. or immediately committed for one month, with correction of the house.		Half to the informer, and half to the king.	1	1	1 Geo. I. c. 57. f. 3. 10 Geo. III. c. 44. f. 5.
PLYING without check strings	5 s. or immediately committed for one month.		Half to the informer, and half to the king.	1	1	11 Geo. III. c. 28. f. 2.
DRIVERS of carriages, (if owners) for misbehaviour or negligence—N. B. of any carriage whatsoever	Not exceeding 20s. and in default, committed not exceeding one month unless sooner paid.		Half to the informer, and half to the surveyor of the roads	1		13 Geo. III. c. 78. f. 61. 13 Geo. III. c. 84. f. 40.
THE driver not being owner, &c.—N. B. of any carriage whatsoever	Not exceeding 10 s. and in default, committed not exceeding one month unless sooner paid.		Half to the informer, and half to the surveyor of the roads	1	1	13 Geo. III. c. 78. f. 61. 13 Geo. III. c. 84. f. 40.
OWNERS christian and surnames, &c. to be painted on all waggons, carts and coaches, post chaises, &c. let to hire; and every person using any such carriage upon any highway or turn pike road, without such names and descriptions, &c.	Not exceeding 5 l. nor less than 20 s.	Distress	Half to the informer, and half to the surveyor of the highways, &c.	1	1	13 Geo. III. c. 78. f. 50. 13 Geo. III. c. 84. f. 68.

Mr. Addington, with a degree of modesty highly commendable, says that his Abridgment is little more than an index to the Statutes; yet this very circumstance is the principal recommendation of his performance, since he has not been brief at the expence of perspicuity. The professed design of the article before us, is to rescue the reader from the difficulty of engaging a formidable phalanx of folio volumes, and to shew him at a single view, not only *what* the offences are, which have been created by our statutes, but to shew him also at a single view, *how* they are punishable by these positive institutions of his country.

There is a copious Table of Contents to this volume, and the Abridgment reaches to the 14th year of his present majesty. Upon the whole, Mr. Addington will save the practitioners of the law much time; he will be peculiarly serviceable to gentlemen in the commission of the peace; and finally, be a very necessary companion for the master of every family.

XII. *Discourses preached on several Occasions, by Thomas Sherlock, D. D. late Lord Bishop of London, and Master of the Temple, Vol. V. 8vo. 5s. boards. Davies.*

THE author of these Discourses, as the editor observes, no sooner appeared in the great world, than he gave evident proofs of the extent of his learning, and the superiority of his genius. His views, both in civil and religious matters, were always large and comprehensive, not confined to the narrow systems of particular parties, nor subjected to the fluctuating principles of powerful and interested men. He was a strenuous and able defender of the great truths of our religion. He made it his constant practice to inculcate the christian and social virtues; to enforce a due and steady submission to the laws; to inspire prince and people with a sense of their respective duties, and to discountenance all temporary changes and hasty innovations in church and state.

These sermons were separately published, soon after they were preached; but as most of them were become scarce, a republication was earnestly desired by all the admirers of this excellent writer's theological compositions.

They were preached on the following occasions:

Discourse I. Before the Queen at St. James's, Jan. 30, 1704.—The subject of this discourse is that obedience to governors, which is enjoined by the law of God, and the unjustifiable conduct of those, who attempt to promote unnecessary changes, either in church or state.—‘To view, says he, with pleasure the factions and disturbances of a kingdom; and, like  
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the lame and impotent at the pool of Bethesda, to long for the troubling of the waters, that we may first step in, and make some private advantage of the public calamities, is neither the part of a good man, or [nor] a good citizen.'—Yet how often is this the real design of those, who would be thought patriots, and advocates for liberty !

The editor, speaking of this discourse, makes the following remark, which seems pretty just : ' It has been matter of doubt with some, whether this discourse, which was preached above seventy years since, when the author was a young man, has been excelled, either in language or matter, by any that he delivered from the pulpit afterwards.'

II. Preached before the Sons of the Clergy, at St. Paul's, 1710.

III. Preached before the Lord-Mayor, Nov. 5, 1712. In this discourse the author endeavours to ascertain the proper limits of spiritual and civil power.—Among other observations, he has the following.

' The church has no right to impose penal laws upon any account : in matters purely of a religious nature, the state has no right. But of such matters perhaps, there may be great scarcity in the world : for the passions of men work themselves into their religious concerns ; and the controversy grows insensibly into a struggle for power and superiority ; and often breeds convulsions, that shake the very constitution of the civil government. And must the magistrate sit still, because the bustle is about religion, and be told, that he has nothing to do in it ? Surely it becomes him to stir, and to drive conscience out of the state to its proper seat, the heart of man ; whether his power neither can, nor ought to pursue it.'

IV. Preached before the House of Commons, Mar. 8, 1714, being the Anniversary of her Majesty's Accession. In this discourse, the author delineates the character of a good prince, from 2 Sam. xxiii. 3, 4.

V. Preached in the Temple Church, Nov. 20, 1715, on account of the rebellion at that time.

VI. Preached before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, 1715.

VII. A Thanksgiving Sermon, occasioned by the Suppression of the Rebellion ; preached before the House of Commons, June 7, 1716.

VIII. Preached at St. Bride's before the Lord-Mayor, 1717.

IX. Preached at the same place in 1728 ; stating and recommending the Case of the Insolvent Debtors.

X. Preached before the House of Lords, Jan. 30, 17 . . .

XI. The

XI. The Nature and Extent of Charity; preached before the Trustees of the Infirmary in James-street, 1735.

XII. Preached before the Society for Promoting Protestant Schools in Ireland, 1738.

XIII. A Charity Sermon at St. Sepulchre's, 1719.

XIV. Preached in 1745, on Occasion of the Rebellion in Scotland.

In these sermons, the judicious reader will discover the same energy of sentiment, and purity of diction, the same pious intention to promote virtue and true religion, the same pathetic and convincing address to the heart, which eminently distinguish the rest of this prelate's discourses.

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XIII. *Thirty six Discourses on Practical Subjects. By the late Rev. Benjamin Ibbot, D. D. Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majesty King George the First, Prebendary of Westminster, Rector of St. Paul's, Shadwell, and Preacher-Assistant at St. James's, Westminster. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. boards. Davies.*

THE editor has prefixed to these Discourses an account of the life and writings of the author, communicated by Dr. Flexman.

The following particulars are some of the most material circumstances in these memoirs.

Dr. Benjamin Ibbot was the son of Mr. Thomas Ibbot, vicar of Swaffham, and rector of Beachamwell, in the county of Norfolk. He was born at Beachamwell, in the year 1680; and at the age of fifteen, was entered at Clare-Hall, in the university of Cambridge, under the tuition of the reverend Mr. Laughton, a gentleman justly celebrated for his attainments in philosophy and mathematics; to whom Dr. Samuel Clarke acknowledged himself indebted for many of the notes inserted in his Latin version of Rohault's Philosophy.

Mr. Ibbot took the degree of A. B. in 1699, removed to Corpus Christi the year following, and commenced A. M. in 1703.

In the year 1707, archbishop Tenison appointed him his chaplain, and the next year collated him to the treasurership of the cathedral church of Wells. He also presented him to the rectory of the united parishes of St. Vedast and St. Michael Querne.

In 1713 and 1714, by the appointment of the archbishop, he preached the course of sermons for the lecture founded by Mr. Boyle. In these discourses the true notion of the exercise of private judgment, or free-thinking in matters of religion, is fairly and fully stated, the principal objections against it

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it are answered, and the modern way of free-thinking, as treated by Mr. Collins, is judiciously refuted.

In 1716, Mr. Ibbot was appointed chaplain in ordinary to king George I. and the next year created D. D. In . . . he was made preacher-assistant to Dr. Clarke at St. James's, and presented to the rectory of St. Paul's, Shadwell.

Upon his being installed a prebendary in the collegiate church of St. Peter, Westminster, in 1724, he retired to Camberwell for the recovery of his health, which had been impaired by the fatigue of constant preaching to very numerous congregations, at a considerable distance from each other. Here he died on the 5th of April, 1725, in the 45th year of his age, and was buried in Westminster-Abbey.

Soon after his death, *Thirty Discourses on Practical Subjects* were selected from his manuscripts by his friend Dr. Clarke; and published for the benefit of his widow, in two volumes, octavo; for which she was favoured with a large subscription.

In 1719, Dr. Ibbot published a translation of Puffendorf's Treatise, *De Habitu Religionis Christianæ ad Vitam civilem*; Of the Relation between Church and State, or how far Christian and Civil Life affect each other: with a Preface giving some account of the book, and its use, with regard to the controversies in agitation at that time. See Herne's Account of the Bangorian Controversy, in Bishop Hoadly's Works, vol. i. p. 697, vol. ii. p. 389. Masters's Hist. of Corpus Christi College, Part II. p. 317, 318. and Appendix, p. 98, 99.

The two volumes now before us consist of the *Thirty Discourses* abovementioned, and *Six Occasional Sermons*, published separately in the author's life time.

The subjects are of a popular and useful kind: such as, the Nature of Regeneration, the Satisfaction attending a Virtuous Life, the True Notion of Christian Faith, the Necessity of Righteousness, the Love of Pleasure, the Effects of Superstition, the Strait Gate, the Government of the Passions, the Reasonableness of the Terms of Salvation, the Duty of Prayer, the Certainty of a Resurrection, &c.

On these topics, the author's manner of writing is calm and dispassionate; his language plain and unaffected; his reasoning clear and methodical; his illustrations of Scripture rational and judicious; his representations of human nature, religion, and the Deity, liberal and manly. Notwithstanding some inaccuracies of expression, and the disadvantages attending a want of the author's final emendations, we may place these *Discourses* in the first class of practical sermons.



XIV. Aristotle's *Poetics*; or *Discourses concerning Tragic and Epic Imitation*. Translated from the Greek into English. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Doddsley.

THE *Poetics* of Aristotle have been universally esteemed as a work replete with the most judicious observations on tragic and epic composition. It abounds with those strong marks of sagacity and discernment, which so much distinguished that masterly critic and philosopher, whose penetrating genius seems to have pervaded, with an accuracy approaching to intuition, the abstrusest subjects of speculative enquiry, and who has given law to the human understanding, in some of its deepest disquisitions. The concise manner, however, in which the *Poetics*, as well as other works of the celebrated Stagyræite, are written, has given rise to various interpretations, on which the sentiments of commentators have been divided; and it is doubtless greatly owing to this circumstance, that so few translations of these Discourses are to be met with in any language.

It will appear from the following specimen, that the author of this version has been more attentive to deliver the sense of the original in its literal acceptation, than either to divest it of obscurity, or express it with elegance.

‘ *Concerning the Parts of Tragedy, according to the Quality.*

‘ Hence it follows that every tragedy, according to the quality, should necessarily consist of six parts; and these are fable, morals, sentiment, language, scenery, and music. The means with which they make the imitation are two; the manner of imitating, one; and, the different objects, three; and besides these, nothing.

‘ Not few of the poets therefore have, (if I may be allowed the expression,) made use of these species. For every piece has in like manner, scenery, morals, fable, ode, and sentiment. But the principal part is the arrangement of affairs. For tragedy is an imitation not of men; but of action, and of life; of happiness, and misery. For happiness depends on action; and the end is a certain action, not a quality. According to the morals they are such or such; but according to the actions, happy, or the contrary. Consequently, they do not act to imitate the morals, but comprehend the morals within the actions. So that the affairs and fable are the end of tragedy; and the end is the chief consideration of all: farther, without action, tragedy could not be; but without morals it might. For the tragedies of most modern authors are without morals, and upon the whole there are many such poets. It is just the same with the painters, Zeuxis and Polygnotus. For

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Polygnotus is certainly a good moral painter ; but Zeuxis's paintings have no moral. Again, should any one range in order, moral sayings, fine language and sentiments, he would not perform what is the business of tragedy. Whereas a tragedy, that uses these more sparingly, and has fable and arrangement of affairs, will do it much better. To which may be added, that the chief things with which tragedy captivates the mind, are parts of the fable ; the incidents and discoveries. As a farther proof still ; they, who undertake to write, attain accuracy in the language and morals, sooner than in the arrangement of affairs ; as almost all the primitive poets have done. Surely then, the primary object of all, and as it were soul of tragedy, is the fable ; and the morals secondary.

\* Something almost similar to this happens in designing. For should any one daub with the most beautiful colours confusedly ; he would not delight the mind in so high a degree, as if he sketched a resemblance even with chalk.

\* And it is both an imitation of action, and by means of it chiefly of living characters. A third thing is the sentiment ; and this is a faculty of speaking whatever is internal and suitable ; which in the dialogues we must learn from common usage, and rhetoric. The ancients made their characters speak citizen-like ; the moderns adorn with rhetoric. The moral is that which shews what the choice is in such discourses as do not clearly discover whether the speaker chooses or refuses. Therefore some of them have no moral.

\* And the sentiment means whereby they shew any thing, that it is, or is not so ; or in general declare something.

\* A fourth, the style of the discourses ; I mean, as was observed before, that style is the interpretation by words ; which both in verse and prose has the same power. Of the rest, music, being fifth, is most pre-eminent of the graces. The scenery, it is true, captivates the mind, but is remotest from art, and least essential to poetry. For tragedy has a power even without the representation or players. Besides, in the decorations it is not so much the poet's, as the scene-maker's skill that is required.

For facilitating the reader's conception, the translator might have advantageously illustrated some passages of the work with explanatory notes, and also have adhered less scrupulously to the idiom of the original, where the sense was sufficiently obvious. The version however may be useful to those who have not read the treatise in the language of Aristotle ; and it is here accompanied with extracts concerning the Greek theatre and masks, translated from the Greek of Julius Pollux.

FOREIGN

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

XV. *Memoirs of the Laplanders in Finmark, their Language, Manners, Customs, and former Paganism, &c. (continued from p. 316.)*

CHAP. VII. The chief subsistence of the highland Laplanders during their long winter consists in reindeer flesh, boiled, or roasted, or, for variety's sake, dried in smoak; occasionally they also feast on bears, foxes, fish, otters, sea-dogs, and other animals, except pork, from which they abstain, deeming it forbidden food.

In summer, when few reindeer are killed, the milk of those animals is mixed with sorrel, or a sort of blackberries, (*Empetrum Nigrum*, *Flor. Suec.* 904.) to the consistence of a pap. Autumn imparts to that milk a small degree of acidity, but it soon freezes insensibly into masses, in which it is stored up for winter, when for their single daily meal, a lump sufficient for the family is first cut off with a hatchet, then carved with knives, served up, and eaten with gnashing teeth.

But what little milk the reindeer yield in the depth of winter is, as a dainty, carefully reserved for the missionary, or other guests, whom they intend to feast. Like the other milk it is frozen, but one side of the vessel being placed near the fire, part of the surface thaws, and is then eaten with spoons. To prevent its losing its sweetness and whiteness, and turning rancid, the vessel is carefully covered, and sheltered from the winds.

The cheese made of reindeer-milk is eaten new, or boiled in water and stored up, and sometimes toasted. It is so fat as to burn like candles, and said also to be an excellent specific to restore limbs benumbed with cold.

A kind of bouillon they prepare with water, blood, flour, and fat; the blood is poured into a reindeer's ventricle, and when frozen, stored up for winter; when they cut part of the ventricle and blood, and melt it in a kettle: they also frequently bake cakes of flour and water on the coals.

The sea Laplanders live on soles, excellent salmon, cod, &c. boiled, roasted, or dried, and dipped in train oil by way of sauce; on fish-livers mixed with black-berries, and boiled to a pap; and on soups made of flour and water, with the addition of some suet, or meat, and some small-cut reindeer cheese.

All the Laplanders eat their fattest dishes without bread; in lieu of fruits, or by way of desert, they eat not only the root of angelica, but the plant, generally green, sometimes roasted on the coals, or boiled in milk; and the thin inner bark of birch and white pines, scraped and dipped in train-oil. This liquor their children are used to relish from their earliest infancy; they prefer it to butter; but they do not, as has often been affirmed, drink whole pints of it at their meals: to women in labour a small dose of train-oil is administered as a cordial, and to facilitate delivery. Their general drink is water mixed with snow, whilst snow is to be had.

Ch. VIII. Both the tents of the highlanders and the cottages of the sea Laplanders, being very small, admit but a simple, scanty, portable furniture, consisting of a few pots, kettles, basons, dishes made of birch wood, pewter flasks, horn spoons, and some other small vessel: some of them have pewter-plates, but very few one



or two silver spoons. Chairs and tables they have none, but sit cross-legged on the ground in a circle round their dishes. The highlanders use no candles or lamps; those of the sea Laplanders are made of wood, into which they put some shell, such as the *ostrea maxima Linnæi*, with train-oil, and rush (*juncus conglomeratus*, or *juncus effusus*) serves them for a wick: a small hollowed piece of a tree serves as a cradle for their children, in which they are carefully wrapped up and tied, and carried about by their mother, on her back, or, on distant journies, in her sledge.

Ch. IX. Few animals are so very useful to their owners as reindeer. They are the chief support and care of the highland Laplanders; but as their figure and description may be seen in any System of Zoology or Natural History, we will here confine ourselves to a general and concise account of their various use.

Wild reindeer are, in point of size and fatness, far superior to domestic ones; and of the latter, the males are incomparably larger than the females; of whom some, called *aldo*, bring forth annually their young; others, named *rodno*, every other year; and some are totally barren.

In summer they feed on grass; in winter, on a white moss, (*lichen rangiferinus*,) which they dig with their feet from under the snow: if the snow be too hard frozen, or the ground covered with ice, and their food inaccessible, they must starve and perish, and their owners be reduced to distress and famine; a calamity which, providentially, seldom happens. But the reindeer are liable to be tormented by several insects and worms, especially by the *æstrus nasalis*; and often perish by various diseases, some of them epidemical; whence the wealthy owner of six hundred reindeer, sees his herd sometimes on a sudden reduced to a very small number, and himself to poverty and want.

Besides want of food, pestering insects, painful and fatal diseases, the reindeer often fall a prey to wolves, and other savage beasts abounding in Lapland; especially in severe weather, when hunger makes their enemies more ravenous, and gusts of snow, or storms, force the herdsmen to take shelter behind the snow-hills. The wolves, however, are always attended by swarms of crows ready to feast on their leavings, but apt to defeat their own hopes by proclaiming to the Laplanders the approach of unwelcome guests. The herd of a family is generally guarded by its servants or grown children; the reindeer always continue in the open air, and at night lie in a circle round their owner's tent. To prevent their straying in the fields or woods, a number of docile, strong, and useful dogs are kept, though very poorly. Though the reindeer yield a less quantity of milk than goats, that defect is abundantly compensated by the superior quality of the milk, and the number of the reindeer.

When a reindeer is to be killed, they first tie the beast to a stake, then with a knife stab it in the breast, when it runs a few turns round the stake and drops: it bleeds inwardly, and the blood is carefully stored up for winter food.

When a Laplander is reduced to a number of reindeer insufficient for his support, he entrusts the care of them to some friend or neighbour, and removes with his family to the sea coast to subsist by fishing.

Ch. X. Wealthy Laplanders are drawn by gelded reindeer; the poor use reindeer-cows. To train them fit for their service is a tedious and troublesome task, as, at first, they prove very refractory

tery. Their various trappings are made by women: they are not led by double reins like horses, but by a single leather thong. The sledges are various, some, as the *gienkerres* and the *pulkes*, are small and portable, fit to carry one person: others, as the *raido kierres*, and *lok kierres*, are larger, and fit to transport tents, furniture, stores, &c. When a family removes, the driver sits in the foremost sledge; to whose back-part the reindeer before the second sledge is tied, &c. so that a train of seven or more sledges is often guided by one man. As the sledge is drawn by a single rope, when gliding down a declivity it would run foul on the reindeer; to prevent which another reindeer is fastened on the back part of the sledge; and if the declivity be too steep, the reindeer before the sledge is likewise tied behind it and the sledge takes its own course.

Ch. XI. The sea Laplanders change their residence twice in a year: in spring and in autumn; in which latter season they return to their fixed winter cottage. The highlanders, on the contrary, like the Tartars or Arabs, rove from place to place for the convenience of pasturage; in summer they slowly approach with their families and herds to the sea-coast, for the purpose of fishing; their luggage is then carried on reindeer's backs: in autumn they retire towards the interior mountains. Their winter journies are greatly facilitated by their sledges; and the danger of several trains encountering each other in the dark, is prevented by bells hung on the reindeer's neck. How the Laplanders on their winter journies, over inhospitable, unfrequented tracks, covered with snow and ice, amidst precipices, in piercing winds, in gusts of snow and hoar frost, and in long dark winter nights, when the reindeer before the sledge is hardly to be seen, can find their way, and reach their destined place, is indeed a matter of amazement, and hardly credible by those who have not seen it. But the Laplanders avail themselves in their course, of the direction of settled winds when blowing, or of their knowledge of the stars; of which, though no astronomers, they know many exactly, and have even called some by particular names; among which we cannot wonder to find a reindeer star. Length of way, or depth of snow, often forces them to pass a whole winter night in the open air; on these occasions they erect a small tent and make a fire.

In 1733. Christian VI made a tour through Norway. Mr. Leem then gave his majesty an account of the state of the mission, trade, &c. in Finmark, and was ordered to send a young Laplander to court. The proposal was declined by every parent and every youth, till one Korfnaes was at length persuaded to make the voyage. He arrived in autumn, was graciously received, elegantly dressed, and well entertained. But from the change of a Laplandish to court diet, he fell sick in December and died; and his finery was sent to his relations in proof how well he had been treated.

[ *To be continued.* ]

XIV. *Der Winter.* By C. C. L. Hirschfeld. 8vo. Leipzig. German.

THIS collection contains twenty-one periodical essays, of which we will here give the general contents, and reserve some specimens for another Review.

I. In the first essay the author considers the changes of nature at the beginning of winter, and the sentiments arising from them: takes a retrospect of the past summer: and observes that the winter affords subjects for useful and agreeable considerations. II. Farther views on the devastations caused by winter: frailty of human life,

storms, and tempests, with their usefulness to mankind : moral remarks : unsettled weather : sun setting in a gloomy evening. III. The meteors of this season are not to be considered merely as they are perceived by the senses ; but according to their nature, purpose, and relations to the whole : use of rains, and fogs in nature's economy. IV. Providential care for the animal kingdom during this season : winter's sleep of birds : a moral application on human conduct : wandering birds : meditation on Providence. V. Beginning of cold : frost, its gradual increase, and changes produced by it : accidental rains : return of redoubled frost : nature's care for her creatures : effects of cold on health : invitation to walk : advantages of our climate. VI. Snow ; its formation : white covering of the landscape : its embellishments and uses : social amusements. VII. Reflexions on hunting : recommendation of pity for animals : effects of a passion for hunting, on manners and temper. VIII. Man more sociable in winter : social meetings or clubs ; picture of a lady formed for an agreeable conversation. IX. Grand assemblies, their uses and dangers : morality of gaming : characters of gamblers. X. Concerts : the praises of a celebrated singer : charms and uses of music, especially in winter. XI. Balls : solemn preparations of the fair sex. XII. Plays : considerations on their various uses. XIII. Transition from winter amusements to persons suffering during that season : compassion recommended. XIV. Winter amusements and labours of country people : the praises of industry, &c. XV. A poem on winter. XVI. Further views of its natural scenes : a description of a gloomy hermit : his complaints of the world : moral reflections on the accidents of human life, and on the motives for contentment. XVII. Impartial care of Providence for every clime : our winters contrasted with that of the frigid zone. XVIII. Picture of a fine winter's evening : a contemplation of the starry heavens. XIX. Uses of study in winter : the fair sex invited to instructive readings. XX. Slow decline of winter : changes produced by time in nature's scenes : applied to human life, and to the comfort of unhappy persons : providential care for old age. XXI. Return of spring : prospect into delightful days : conclusion.

#### FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

17. *Plutarchi Chæronensis, quæ supersunt omnia, Græce & Latine, principibus ex Editionibus castigavit, Virorumque doctorum suisque Annotationibus instruxit. Jo. Jac. Reiske. Tomus I. 8vo. Lipsiæ.*

THIS first volume contains Reiske's and Du Soul's prefaces, and Dacier's chronology on Plutarch's Lives : the ten first lives of illustrious Greeks and Romans, from Bryon's edition, collated with anterior ones : under the text Crusæ's Latin version, Stephan's, Xylander's, and Bryon's notes at large, and the various readings of other editions : Ruald's, Palmer's, and Reiske's notes have been added by way of appendix. The late Dr. Reiske's merits as an editor are well known ; his editions of several classics have not been interrupted by his death, but are continued under the direction of his learned widow.

18. *Jesus ex Natalium Opportunitate Messias. Autore Johanne Ernesto Fabro. 8vo. Jenæ.*

These ten sheets contain two programmas : of which the first proves that no period of time could have been better adapted to the purpose



purpose for which our Saviour was sent on earth, than that in which he actually appeared. In the second programma, Mr. Faber attempts to explain a passage of Zachary iii. 8, 9, 10. and thinks it a parallel to the prophecy in Dan. ix. 24. In this attempt he has displayed much erudition, ingenuity, and patience; yet not attained that striking evidence which precludes objections and doubts.

19. *Beschreibung der bisher bekannten Boehmischen Münzen, nach Chronologischer Ordnung, nebst einem kurzen Begriff des Lebens der Münzfürsten, und anderer, aus welche sie sind geprägt worden, miteingefreueten historischen Nachrichten von dem Bergbaue in Boehmen. Aufgefertiget von Adauctus Voigt a St. Germano, Priester des Ordens der Frommen Schulen I. II. III. Band. A Description of all known Bohemian Coins, in a chronological Series, with a short Abstract of the Lives of the Sovereigns under whose Reigns, and of other Personages on whose Actions they were struck; and some historical Accounts of the Bohemian Mines. By Adauet Voigt, &c. 3 Vols. in 4to. with Cuts. Prague. German.*

The plan of this work is excellent, and notwithstanding its difficulties, extremely well executed; the author has united the several merits of an impartial and candid historian and biographer, with the profound disquisitions of an antiquarian and critic. The third volume brings the history down to the year 1620. The whole work is to consist of six volumes; of which vol. I.—IV. are assigned to the coins of sovereigns; the Vth allotted to those of the clergy, to family and miscellaneous coins and medals; and the VIth is reserved for the coins and medals of the margravate of Moravia.

20. Joh. Christoph. Andreas Mayer's *Abhandlung von dem Nutzen der Systematischen Botanick in der Arznei- und Haushaltungs-Kunst. An Essay on the Usefulness of Systematical Botany in the Sciences of Physic and Oeconomy*, by J. C. A. Mayer, M. D. 4to. Greifswald. German.

Solidity, perspicuity, and conciseness are the merits of this very short essay.

21. *Icones Lignorum exoticorum & nostratium Germanicorum ex Arboribus, Arbusculis & Fruticibus varii Generis collectorum. With coloured Plates. Folio. Nurnberg.*

The first part consists of twelve elegant plates; each containing nine figures of as many species of wood, with their colours when polished. The printed sheets contain a mere list of Latin and German names of the woods here represented.

22. C. F. Vogel's *Practischer Unterricht von Taschen-uhren so wohl für die Verfertiger als auch für die Liebhaber derselben. C. F. Vogel's Practical Account concerning Watches, designed both for Watchmakers and Buyers. 8vo. with six Cuts. Leipzig. German.*

In this work Mr. Vogel first examines and describes the constituent parts of a watch, and informs his readers how to judge of the several metals of which they consist; then follow the calculations, though without theoretical remarks, &c. An account of several decisive trials, by which the merits of all the different kinds of watches may be ascertained; and a copious list of books on watches, and the watchmakers art. The work appears to be very useful.

23. Josephi Quarin—*Physicii, Methodus medendarum Februm* 8vo Vindobonæ.

The curative method, recommended in this little treatise, is simple and judicious; and the diætic rules carefully laid down.

24. Josephi Quarin, *Methodus medendarum Inflammationum*, 8vo. Vindobonæ.

The author herein treats of inflammatory fevers in a rational and practical manner.

25. *Etliche Gedichte zu'r Probe*, von Moses Dobruska. *Some Poems intended as a Specimen*. 8vo. Vienna. German.

Mr. Moses Dobruska, a Lithuanian Israelite, displays an exuberant fancy; though destitute of taste. This specimen of his poetry contains; 1. Agar and Ismael, an Eastern Tale; full of bombast. 2. Philint and Aglaia, an indifferent pastoral poem. 3. The Hoard, in which he attempts to imitate Gesner; "With a hoard of gold and silver he has found corroding cares—" whether to manage it as a Jew or spend it as a poet, is the question. 4. On Happiness; the cynical discovery, that many supposed by others to be happy, are far from being so, was made long before Diogenes. 5. An indifferent imitation of the first Ode of Anacreon.

26. *Rhapsodie*, von Johan. Heinrich Reimhart dem jüngern. 8vo. German.

An humorous satire in doggrel rhyme, on the numerous and unsuccessful pretenders to poetry, and the various stratagems which they use to obtain notice and applause.

27. *Gedichte, im Geschmacke des Grecourt*. *Poems, in Grecourt's Manner*. 8vo. Frankfort and Leipsig. German.

Both the species and merits of these poems seem to be well expressed in this title. Like Grecourt's they are ingenious and loose.

28. *Versuch über den Charakter des Menschen, und eines Volkes überhaupt*. In einem kurzen Abrisse von F. L. von Hopgarten. *An Essay on the Character of Man, and of Nations in general*. 8vo. Leipsig. German.

In the first essay the author considers self-love as the main source of human actions; to which he traces voluptuousness, ambition, and avarice, by whose various mixtures and limitations, he attempts to explain the variety of human characters. In the second he endeavours to account for the diversity of the characters of nations, from the variety of their forms of government.

29. *Mémoires sur les Canaux qu'on peut construire en Bourgogne, & particulièrement sur celui dont le Lac de Longpendu fermeroit le point de partage*. 12mo. Paris.

The author of this Memoir examines several projects of canals proposed in Burgundy, and declares himself with great zeal and judgment for that of Longpendu, by which the Saone might be joined to the Loire; and the internal commerce of France be greatly facilitated and improved.

30. *Traité Economique & Physique des Oiseaux de basse-cour; contenant la Description de ces Oiseaux, la Maniere de les élever, de les multiplier, de les nourrir, de les traiter dans leurs Maladies & d'en tirer Profit, tant pour nous Alimens que pour nos Medicamens, & pour les différens Arts & Metiers*. 12mo. Paris.

This useful practical treatise contains a very minute description of ten species of domestic fowls.

MONTHLY

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## P O L I T I C A L.

31. *A plain State of the Argument between Great Britain and her Colonies.* 8vo. 6d. Becket.

THE arguments advanced in the American controversy have undergone such frequent discussion, that they hardly can be rendered more plain. At a time when we may suppose the question is fully decided in the public judgment, it is some comfort in perusing another pamphlet on this subject, that where we can expect no additional information, our patience is not tired with prolixity. This writer, who maintains the supremacy of parliament, reduces the dispute to a few points, and these he treats with perspicuity.

32. *The Conduct of Administration with regard to the Colonies.* 8vo. 1s. Williams.

This pamphlet contains a recital of the measures pursued by government against the colonists since the commencement of the American dispute, accompanied with the usual misrepresentation of a violent partizan, and some hackneyed arguments on the subject.

33. *A Second Appeal to the Justice and Interests of the People on the Measures respecting America.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Almon.

In our Review \* of the former pamphlet under this title, we informed our readers that the author confidently denied the authority of the British parliament to tax the Americans; but had not refuted the arguments advanced in opposition to that doctrine. In the present Appeal, he maintains the same principles, with similar partiality.

34. *The Evidence of the common and statute Laws of the Realm; in Proof of the Rights of Britons throughout the British Empire.* 8vo. 2s. Williams.

Another dish of the good old political hotch-potch, with which we have been a hundred times regaled in the course of the two last years. It is compounded of something resembling the vitals of the British constitution (which God long preserve!) seasoned with grateful spices for the palate of the Americans, and vile sour crout for that of administration. Happy would it be for the Reviewers, could the advocates for America be satisfied with the black broth of the Lacedæmonians!

35. *A Proposition for the present Peace and future Government of the British Colonies in North America.* 8vo. 1s. W. Davis.

The design of this writer being professedly conciliatory, he avoids entering into the merits of the contest between Great Britain and America; and though he sometimes appears to favour the latter, it is rather in the way of apology than justifi-

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxviii. p. 474.



cation. The Proposition which he submits to the public is, that America should be restored to its former footing, and the inhabitants grant their part of the supplies as a voluntary aid to government. This plan, however, is evidently founded on a total renunciation of the question of right.

36. *Resistance no Rebellion. In which the Right of a British Parliament to tax the American Colonies, is fully considered, and found unconstitutional: the Right of a Free People to resist in Defence of their Laws and Constitution, asserted and vindicated: and the infamous Fallacies in John Wesley's Address to the American Colonies, exposed and censured.* 8vo. 1s. Maud.

Some months ago a pamphlet was published \* under the same general title with that which now lies before us. The present production, it must be owned, though similar in respect of the subject, is differently modelled, and superior to the former both in compass and ingenuity of argument. We meet not, however with any remark that deserves particular attention, except in the appendix, where the author endeavours to prove that the Americans are already more encumbered with public burthens than even Britain herself. But this estimate is not sufficiently authenticated to justify a positive determination.

37. *An Old Fox Tarr'd and Feather'd. Occasioned by what is called Mr. John Wesley's Calm Address to our American Colonies.* 12mo. 2d. French.

These remarks are chiefly employed to shew how much Mr. Wesley, in his *Calm Address to the American Colonies*, has copied the pamphlet entitled *Taxation no Tyranny*. To prove the charge of plagiarism, the author presents us with a synopsis, continued through several pages, divided into two columns, in one of which he exhibits passages from Dr. Johnson, and in the other from Mr. Wesley. If Mr. Wesley should reply to this accusation, his defence will probably be, that he had approved the sentiments of the former learned gentleman, and could not express them more properly.

38. *A constitutional Answer to the rev. Mr. John Wesley's Calm Address to the American Colonies.* 12mo. 2d. Dilly.

39. *A Letter to the rev. Mr. John Wesley, occasioned by his Calm Address to the American Colonies.* By Caleb Evans, M. A. 12mo. 3d. Dilly.

Our last Review gave an account of two pamphlets written in answer to Mr. Wesley's Address; and in these now before us we find nothing which merits farther observation. The arguments on the subject are so fully exhausted, that, though the literary champions may shew their zeal by continuing the dispute, they can hardly gain credit by their ingenuity.

40. *Proceedings of the House of Burgesses of Virginia.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Longman.

This pamphlet contains the proceedings of the assembly last summer, respecting the rupture between them and their governor.

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxix p. 333.

lord Dunmore; with his lordship's letters, messages, &c. published from the original papers, by order of the house.

41. *Select Dissertations on Colonies and Plantations.* By Sir Josiah Child, Charles Davenant, LL.D. and Mr. William Wood. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hay.

The reputation of the authors from whom these discourses are extracted, renders it unnecessary to bestow any encomium on the political observations they contain.

42. *Marmor Norfolciense; or, an Essay on an ancient prophetic Inscription, in Monkish Rhyme, lately discovered near Lynn, in Norfolk.* By Probus Britannicus. Published in 1739. A new Edition, with Notes, and a Dedication to S. Johnson, LL.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Williams.

Whether this pamphlet be really the production of the writer to whom it has been ascribed, is not our business to determine. But if it actually owes its origin to the reputed author, we cannot help considering the republication of it, at present, without his own concurrence, as a very officious and invidious exertion of personal malevolence.

#### D I V I N I T Y.

43. *The Duty of standing fast in our Spiritual and Temporal Liberties, a Sermon, preached in Christ-Church, July 7, 1775. Before the first Battalion of the City and Liberties of Philadelphia.* by the rev. Jacob Duché. 8vo. 6d. Evans, Paternoster-row.

The text prefixed to this discourse is Gal. v. 1. "Stand fast in the liberty, wherewith Christ hath made us free." St. Paul applies these words to a freedom from the Levitical law, which was to cease, of course, at the coming of Christ; but this American preacher perverts them to a very different purpose, the freedom, which is claimed by his countrymen: that is, in effect, a freedom from filial duty, and the laws of gratitude and honour. In the Epistle of the former, *stand fast* means, do not relapse into Judaism, but steadily adhere to the Christian faith; in the Sermon of the latter, it means, if it means any thing, oppose the jurisdiction of your mother-country, persevere in the measures you have adopted, and, if you cannot conquer by any other means, stand fast to your artillery.

44. *A Sermon preached before the right hon. John Wilkes, Esq. Lord-Mayor, and the Court of Aldermen, &c. of the City of London, at the Parish Church of St. Lawrence Jewry, on Friday, Sept. 29, 1775, being the Anniversary of the Election of a Mayor for the Year ensuing.* By the rev. Joseph Williamson, A. M. 4to. 1s. Williams.

A sermon should always be adapted to the genius and manners of the audience, before which it is delivered. The same discourse, which may have as good an effect, as can well be expected, at St. James's, would be utterly improper and ineffectual,

tual, if preached in the parish-church of Llandyfydog, and *vice versa*. A preacher of any discernment will not attempt to discourse on civil or ecclesiastical polity before mechanics, on controversial questions before farmers, or on metaphysics before a congregation of old women; because these topics have no connection with their occupations, and are above their capacities. But where certain duties are apt to be neglected, yet at the same time are extremely practicable, there he may properly exert all his art of persuasion. For example: he may preach on honesty to tradesmen, on temperance to citizens, on sincerity to courtiers, and on loyalty to modern patriots. And if his discourses are not effectual, his attempts will at least be laudable.

Mr. Williamson, like a judicious divine, preaching before the court of aldermen, and the livery of London, endeavours to recommend the virtues of quietness, moderation, unanimity, and politeness.

45. *Exercitatio Theologica de Nuptiis Virginis superadultæ: ad illustrandum locum, 1 Cor. vii. 36. Quâ singularem suam Sententiam placide iruditorum disquisitioni submittit Johannes Joachimus Zublinus, Sangallo Helvetius, V. D. M. 8vo. Carolopoli.*

The subject of this Dissertation is the following text in St. Paul's first Epistle to the Corinthians, ch. vii. ver. 36. "If any man think, that he behaveth himself uncomely towards his virgin, if she pass the flower of her age, and need so require, let him do what he will, he sinneth not: let them marry."

This passage has greatly perplexed the commentators; especially these words, *εἰν ἢ ὑπερανμωσ*, which our translators have rendered, "if she pass the flower of her age."

The author of this tract proposes the following explication.

‘Quid virgini consultum sit, quid honestum, quid circumstantiis temporis conveniens, supra monui, non ut laqueum vobis injiciam, vel in anceps præcipitem vestras conscientias; sed ut quid utile sit, quid pulchrum habeatis in comperto; cum autem nuptias in genere hõcce tempore minus eligendas, minimè tamen nefandas vobis nunciem. Superest quædam dicere de virginibus superadultis, et cum quibus seopus matrimonii, omni tempore primarius, non amplius habet locum: talis virginis sponsus, vel etiam talis virgo, si nuptias sibi necessarias putet, vel etiam protegendæ et adjuvandi causâ, in matrimonium petatur, nullo teneatur timore, quasi illi dedecorum nubere futurum sit; nullum vobis sit obstaculum, ne quod sibi necessarium putet, vel et tutum et conveniens, recuset et omittat: inanibus scrupulis imaginariæ turpitudinis circumagi nolite, necessitati prudentiæ, quin et legitimis desideriis, ærumnis, quæ in statu matrimoniali reformidantur non obstantibus, lubenter cedite, utrique vestrum auctor sum. Aliter autem se res habet, si quis vel quæ, nullâ necessitate oppositum urgente, ex plenariâ suæ voluntatis libertate secum statuatur servare suam virginitatem, non quidem ex voto, sed ex proposito liberæ mentis, talem ego si servet benè  
facere



facere pronuncio. Ita enim cardo totius rei in libertate versatur, ut nubens, observatis observandis, faciat benè, ut hocce tempore nuptiis non assentiens, gaudiat minus, et minus doleat, et in tantum faciet melius.'

The word *ὑπεραγῆμος*, according to this writer, means an elderly lady, who resembles the patriarch's wife, Gen. xviii. 11. and on that account the author supposes the business of marriage might very properly become a case of conscience. This is a new and ingenious interpretation.

## P O E T R Y.

46. *Rebellion. A Poem. Addressed to J—— W——, Esq. late L——d M——r of the City of L——n.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Matthews.

In this poem the author satirizes the abettors of sedition and civil discord, "whether of Boston, London, or Mile End." The invective is not such as is likely to have great effect with the demagogues at any of those places, though some of the lines are not destitute of sarcastic energy.

47. *The Hampstead Contest, a Law Case, submitted to Counsel, and inscribed to Mrs. L——st——gh——m.* 4to. 6d. Newbery.

A poetical narrative of a late controversy, expected to be litigated in the courts of law, and written in a facetious manner.

## D R A M A T I C.

48. *Germanicus : a Tragedy. By a Gentleman of the University of Oxford.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Whitaker.

The structure of this tragedy is so extremely imperfect, that, if we except a very few scenes, it hardly contains the vestige of a fable; and the great vacuities are filled up with unnecessary dialogue, totally unconnected with incidents or intrigue, and exciting neither pity nor terror. One trifling circumstance we should not mention, were it not that from a similar error, an inference has been drawn, that Shakespeare was unacquainted with the Latin language; in the beginning of the third act, a female character makes her appearance *solus*. This error is probably typographical; for we cannot suppose a gentleman of the university of Oxford to be ignorant of the plainest rule in syntax, however he may be deficient in genius for dramatic poetry.

49. *The Weathercock, a Musical Entertainment of Two Acts, as performed at the Theatre-Royal in Covent-Garden.* 8vo. 1s. Evans.

Professedly intended by the author as a *vehicle* for introducing his *airs*; but these, unfortunately, proved not so agreeable to the audience as to save it from the fate which indeed it could hardly escape.

## M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

50. *A Trip to Calais; a medley maritime Sketch: being the poetical prosaical Production of Timothy Timbertoe, Esq. dedicated to a Duchess.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bew.

We had no sooner cast our eyes on the title-page of this production, than our curiosity was strongly excited, and we thought

thought ourselves on the point of being gratified with the perusal of a dramatic piece, which was the subject of much conversation, and some epistolary altercation, in the course of last summer. We immediately found, however, that the entertainment we were to expect was of a very different nature from what we supposed to have been announced; and that the ingenious Mr. Timbertoe had silyly allured us to a party of pleasure, consisting of English bucks and French courtezans, instead of introducing us, as we had flattered ourselves, to the company of a lady of high rank. This bagatelle is written in the form of a journal, and the narrative occasionally enlivened with some jovial ditty; among which we meet with one composed in alliteration, and continued entirely through the alphabet. We cannot say that we are here entertained with the wit or humour of Aristophanes, but with a manner which approaches to the ease and gaiety of Petronius, and a whimsical extravagance, somewhat resembling the feast of Trimalchio.

51. *An Essay on Politeness; wherein the Benefits arising from and the Necessity of being polite are clearly proved and demonstrated from Reason, Religion, and Philosophy. To which is prefixed, an allegorical Description of the Origin of Politeness. By a Young Gentleman. Small 8vo. 1s. Law.*

In this short, but comprehensive Essay, the author explains the nature of politeness, shews its marks or principles, and the benefits arising from it, with general directions for acquiring this agreeable accomplishment, and an answer to the objections which have been made against it by persons of a cynical disposition. The Essay contains much good sense, a variety of just observations, and many useful precepts; constituting at once an excellent persuasive and directory towards the attainment of the quality of which it treats.

52. *A Father's Instructions to his Children: consisting of Tales, Fables, and Reflections; designed to promote the Love of Virtue, a Taste for Knowledge, and an early Acquaintance with the Works of Nature. Small 8vo. 2s 6d. sewed. Johnson.*

A collection of entertaining and instructive tales and reflections. The following example will afford the reader a more adequate idea of the author's plan, than any description we can give him.

‘ The pert and the ignorant are prone to ridicule.

‘ A gentleman, of a grave deportment, was busily engaged in blowing bubbles of soap and water, and was attentively observing them as they expanded and burst in the sunshine. A pert youth fell into a fit of loud laughter at a sight so strange, and which shewed, as he thought, such folly and insanity.—Be ashamed, young man, said one who passed by, of your rudeness and ignorance. You now behold the greatest philosopher of the age, Sir Isaac Newton, investigating the nature of light and colours,

hours, by a series of experiments, no less curious than useful, though you deem them childish and insignificant.'

By the elegance of the language, and the delicacy of the sentiments, the author appears to be a writer of taste, ingenuity, and learning.

53. *New Geographical Tables.* By John Poloveri. *Small 8vo.* 6s. Cadell.

The design of these tables is to supply the place of a gazetteer; but we cannot look upon them as any improvement, in respect either to convenience or information.

54. *A New Compendious Grammar of the Latin Tongue; wherein the Elements of the Language are plainly and briefly comprized in English, &c. for the Use of Schools, and private Gentlemen.* By W. Bell, A. B. 12mo. 2s. Murray.

Ingenious men, who undertake to teach any language to others, usually draw up a little system of Grammar for their own use. It answers every purpose they expect; and they see its merits and utility in the most favourable light. By these means they are induced to offer it to the public; presuming, that others will immediately adopt their plan. But every man has his prejudices and partialities; and perhaps, either indolently pursues the path, which he trod in his youth, or strikes out into one peculiar to himself. For these reasons, grammars are multiplied without effect, and the generality of them consigned to oblivion.

We wish Mr. Bell more success in this publication, as he appears to be a laborious, learned, and judicious grammarian. The plan he has followed is that of the celebrated Mr. Rudiman. But he has attempted to supply what he thought wanting in the Rudiments of that writer; that is, rules for the genders of nouns, the preterperfect tenses of verbs, the quantity of syllables, &c.

Yet with respect to many of these general rules, it may be said, they are attended with so many exceptions, that the application of them, in any given instance, is extremely fallacious.

The author seems to be right in giving his grammatical rules in English. Barbarous and scholastic Latin can neither be agreeable nor useful to the learner.

55. *A New Compendious Grammar of the Greek Tongue; wherein the Elements of the Language are plainly and briefly comprized in English, for the Use of Schools and private Gentlemen, whether they have been taught Latin or not.* By W. Bell, A. B. 12mo. 2s. Murray.

In this grammar the declensions of nouns and verbs is illustrated by a variety of examples, and the English subjoined to the Greek. The characteristics, augments, and formation of the tenses are distinctly explained. The rules of syntax are plain and concise; and the short account, which the author has given of the accents, the dialects, the poetic licences, prosody, &c. can-



cannot fail of rendering those branches of grammar very intelligible and easy to the learner.

56. *Of the Improvement of Medicine in London, on the Basis of public Good.* 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

We are here presented with the plan and design of the General Dispensary, its progress, finances, the state of the poor in the city of London, with the advantages of the Dispensary to domestic servants, &c. The institution of the charity is, doubtless, highly laudable, and may be productive of great benefit to the poor inhabitants of the city.

57. *A Brief Account of a new Invention, for which has been obtained his Majesty's Letters patent. It consists of a peculiar Method of constructing and setting Boilers of any Dimensions in Fire-Engines, Salt-Works, &c.* By Christopher Chrysel. 8vo. 3d. Evans, Paternoster-Row.

The author of useful inventions ought always to be an object of the public favour. From the original manner in which Mr. Chrysel writes, he seems to be a person of ingenuity; and, as such, we hope, what he asserts in regard to the utility of his new invented boilers, will be confirmed by the experiments of others.

58. *The Works of George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham; containing his Plays and Miscellanies in Prose and Verse; with explanatory Notes and Memoirs of the Author.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Evans.

Many original productions have we perused that could not fail to excite the contempt of criticism; but never till now have we seen any work reprinted under the direction of a person so totally unqualified for discharging the office of editor. In point of language and composition, these Notes and Memoirs are despicable.

59. *The Lady's Assistant for regulating and supplying her Table; containing One hundred and fifty select Bills of Fare, properly disposed for Family Dinners of five Dishes, to two Courses of eleven and fifteen; with upwards of fifty Bills of Fare for Suppers, from five Dishes to nineteen, and several Deserts: including likewise the fullest and choicest Receipts of various Kinds, with full Directions for preparing them in the most approved Manner. Published from the MS. Collection of Mrs. Charlotte Mason, a professed House-keeper, &c.* 8vo. 6s. Walter.

We mentioned this useful work in our Review for June 1773. In this new edition it is considerably enlarged, and, as far as we can judge, forms a very complete system of cookery.